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ABSTRACT

This issue includes the following articles: "A Problem Solving Approach to the Management of Change in Language Education" (Andy Curtis); "Nonverbal Communications Skills in the EFL Curriculum" (Chung-Il Kang); "Korean Student Exposure to English Listening and Speaking: Instruction, Multimedia, Travel Experience and Motivation" (David I. Kim, Douglas Margolis); "Web-Based Language Learning in Korea: A Pedagogical Critique" (Gerry Lassche); and "A Study of Goal Setting for Language Acquisition In the ESL Classroom" (John Skye). (KFT)

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Volume 3, Number 1

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Korea TESOL Journal

Fall / Winter 2000
Volume 3, Number 1

Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

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The Korea TESOL Journal

Volume 3, Fall/Winter 2000

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Editor's Note

As *Korea TESOL Journal* is now in its third year, we witness favorable indications of stabilization in the demographic backgrounds of the contributors and the contents of the articles. The first volume two years ago was filled with papers written by scholars outside of Korea (although they had some connections with Korea in one way or another). Last year we succeeded in reaching a balance between Korean and international contributors. This year, four of the five articles selected were submitted from within Korea. Furthermore, the contents of the four research papers deal with issues closely related to the Korean context. In three years, we have made good progress in the direction of developing a world-caliber ELT journal that is firmly rooted in Korea.

- In the invited feature article, Andy Curtis introduces a problem-solving approach to the management of change in education, with a focus in language education. After reviewing the literature that addresses the nature of change in education in general, he identifies nine categories of problems pertaining to change in education. He then discusses existing solutions and proposes new ones that can be applied to second language education.

- The next article by Chung-Il Kang addresses the issue of nonverbal communication skills in the EFL curriculum. After reviewing the history of interests in nonverbal communications that dates as far back as Greek and Roman eras, the author presents the definition, functions and cross-cultural differences of nonverbal communication. Noting that nonverbal communication skills are not properly incorporated in Korea's EFL curricula, the author offers some suggestions for including them in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

- In the third article, David D.I. Kim and Douglas Margolis report on their survey into Korean university students' exposure to spoken English. Three types of exposure are examined in the study: instruction, multimedia, and traveling in English speaking countries. The study reports that Korean university students have very limited experience of exposure to spoken English.

They also report on the relationship between the type of exposure and learner motivation. They observe that significant correlations exist between motivation and learning from native-speakers.

- The fourth article is a critique of the web-based language learning by Gerry Lassche. Noting that research has been one-sided towards the positive effects of web-based language learning, the author cautions educators in Korea to be more prudent in their dependence on this technology. He presents his critiques in terms of psychological, cognitive, and social drawbacks, and suggests policies and future studies.

- Finally, John Skye reports on the usefulness of goal setting in the ESL classroom. He compared two groups of students: goal setters and non-goal setters. The goal setters were found to maintain higher motivation and greater concentration on the tasks, and to outperform the non-goal setters by the ratio of three to one.

Also in this volume, we carry nine review articles that cover a wide range of ELT materials, in print, electronic, and on-line. This development is in keeping with one of our missions: to provide an environment for aspiring scholars to publish their early studies. Publishing reviews is also a return to one of the positive aspects of *Volume 1*.

- Six book reviews cross a broad spectrum from teacher-research to teacher-resource to teacher-reference to student reference. It seems somehow fitting that one of the books under review was co-authored by the lead author in the inaugural volume of this *Korea TESOL Journal*, Jerry G. Gebhard.

- For the first time we offer reviews of computer materials. This is an exciting first step for the *Korea TESOL Journal*, and we look forward to more submissions of this type.

There have been many changes in Korea, and in Korea TESOL, since *Volume 1*. The *Korea TESOL Journal* has undergone a normal maturational process during this time: the welcomed sprouting, the sometimes overlooked digging of deep roots, and the annual blossoms. There are many people responsible for this process, in particular I would like to point out the efforts of the editors for the first two issues, Dr. Tomas Farrell and Dr. Kim Jeong-ryeol, our Board of Editors, and the current Managing Editor Dr. Robert Dickey and Reviews Editor Dr. David Shaffer, all of whom have made a long-term commitment to tending this flowering publication. Let us also not overlook the hours of labor offered by our Editorial Assistants and Production Layout staff. It has been my pleasure to be associated with all of them.

Oryang Kwon
Seoul National University

About KOTESOL

Korea TESOL: Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) is a professional organization of teachers of English whose main goal is to assist its members in their self-development and to contribute to the improvement of ELT in Korea. KOTESOL also serves as a network for teachers to connect with others in the ELT community and as a source of information for ELT resource materials and events in Korea and abroad.

Korea TESOL is proud to be an affiliate of TESOL Inc., an international education association of almost 18,000 members with headquarters in Alexandria, Virginia, USA.

Korea TESOL was established in October 1992, when the Association of English Teachers in Korea (AETK) joined with the Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE). As stated in The Constitution and Bylaws of Korea TESOL, "The purpose of Korea TESOL is a not-for-profit organization established to promote scholarship, disseminate information, and facilitate cross-cultural understanding among persons associated with the teaching and learning of English in Korea. In pursuing these goals KOTESOL shall cooperate in appropriate ways with other groups having similar concerns."

KOTESOL is an independent national affiliate of a growing international movement of teachers, closely associated with not only TESOL Inc., but also the Japan Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (JALT), Thailand TESOL (ThaiTESOL), ETA-ROC (English Teachers Assn of the Republic of China/Taiwan), International Association of English Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL), TESL Canada, and most recently with the Far East English Language Teachers Association (Russia).

The membership of KOTESOL includes elementary, middle and high school and university level English teachers as well as teachers-in-training, administrators, researchers, materials writers, curriculum developers and other interested persons. Approximately 40% of the members are Korean.

KOTESOL chapters exist in Seoul, Suwon, Chongju, Taejon, Taegu, Pusan, and Cholla Province. Members of KOTESOL hail from all points of Korea and the globe, thus providing KOTESOL members the benefits of a multi-cultural membership.

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The Korea TESOL Journal

Information for Contributors

EDITORIAL POLICY

The *Korea TESOL Journal*, a refereed journal, welcomes previously unpublished practical and theoretical articles on topics of significance to individuals concerned with the teaching of English as a foreign language. Areas of interest include:

1. classroom-centered research
2. second language acquisition
3. teacher training
4. cross-cultural studies
5. teaching and curriculum methods
6. testing and evaluation

Because the *Journal* is committed to publishing manuscripts that contribute to bridging theory and practice in our profession, it particularly welcomes submissions drawing on relevant research and addressing implications and applications of this research to issues in our profession.

Action Research-based papers, that is, those that arise from genuine issues in the English language teaching classroom, are welcomed. Such pedagogically oriented investigations and case studies/reports, that display findings with applicability beyond the site of study, rightfully belong in a journal for teaching professionals.

The *Korea TESOL Journal* prefers that all submissions be written so that their content is accessible to a broad readership, including those individuals who may not have familiarity with the subject matter addressed. The *Journal* is an international journal, welcoming submissions from English language learning contexts around the world, particularly those focusing upon learners from northeast Asia.

GENERAL INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS

Submission Categories

The *KOTESOL Journal* invites submissions in three categories:

I. Full-length articles. Contributors are strongly encouraged to submit manuscripts of no more than 20-25 double-spaced pages or 8,500 words (including references, notes, and tables).

II. Brief Reports and Summaries. The *KOTESOL Journal* also invites short reports (less than 1,200 words), manuscripts that either present preliminary findings or focus on some aspect of a larger study. Papers written in pursuit of advanced studies are appropriate for summarization.

III. Reviews. The *KOTESOL Journal* invites succinct, evaluative reviews of scholarly or professional books, or instructional-support resources (such as computer software, video- or audio-taped material, and tests). Reviews should provide a descriptive and evaluative summary and a brief discussion of the significance of the work in the context of current theory and practice. Submissions should generally be no longer than 1,200 words.

To facilitate the blind review process, do not use running heads. Submit via email attachment or on diskette in MSWord or RTF file. Figures and tables should each be in separate files, bitmap files (.bmp) are preferred. Hardcopy versions may be requested at a later time.

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The Korea TESOL Journal accepts submissions on a continuous basis.

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A Problem-Solving Approach to the Management of Change in Language Education

Andy Curtis
Queen's University, Canada

Invited Paper

Abstract

The management of change in education is now established as a field of study in its own right. However, in (second) language education, the systematic study of change mechanisms and processes is a relatively new area. This may be especially true in Asia; a part of the world that has arguably experienced some of the greatest change in the last 20 years. This paper, therefore, draws on a wide range of literature from a number of different fields to propose a problem-solving approach to the management of change in (second) language education. The first part of the paper presents some of the background work in this area and explores reasons for the constancy and complexity of change. In the second part, nine problematic areas are identified and each briefly discussed, and in the last part, existing solutions and new solutions are put forward

Introduction

Change, why and how it happens, has been a concern within many fields for some time. In addition to the large and ever-expanding number of books on management of change in corporate contexts (e.g, Larkin and Larkin, 1994; Sansome, 1999), change is being studied as a distinct aspect of other fields, such as nursing (e.g., Broome, 1998). Within the fields of education (e.g., Fullan 1983;1991;1993), language education, and English language teaching in particular (Rossner and Bolitho, 1990), this trend of focussing on the change process as a way of understanding what has been before and what may come to pass in the future has also been followed (Curtis, 1999a, 1999b).

Nearly 30 years ago, Lee (1973) stated that "It's hard to find the person who doesn't feel that education needs changing" (p.137). Although Lee's comment referred to education in general, rather than language education specifically, the observation was made in an early *TESOL Quarterly* article. Nearly 25 years later, Churchill, Williamson and Grady (1997) referred to the ever-increasing volume of literature on educational change (p.156). Given the above studies, it is tempting to conclude that this interest in change is relatively recent, and perhaps a largely 'western' development. However, a much longer interest, and one of 'eastern' origin, is shown by the *I Ching* or Book of Changes. According to Wilhelm, Baynes and Boardman (1987), "The central theme of the work is the continuous change and transformation underlying all existence" (p.v), and in terms of longevity, "it has exerted a living influence on Chinese life for over three thousand years" (p.v).

Change is a constant. This would appear to be true at all levels, in our personal lives, in our professional lives as teachers, and more specifically in our work as language teachers. Yet, as Brindley and Hood (1990) point out, in spite of constant changes in language education, there is still much we do not know about why some innovations are adopted and others rejected (p.255). A very similar comment was later made by Kennedy and Kennedy (1996), in relation to ELT and our lack of knowledge about the reasons for some changes succeeding and others failing (p.351), and Constable, Farrow and Norton (1994) start from the position that still relatively little is known about how changes in classroom practice occur (p.1). One fundamental reason for this constancy of educational change is summarized neatly by Sikes (1992): "Since societies throughout the world are constantly changing and developing, education can also be expected to change" (p.36).

Common Problems

Not all change implementations are bad or problematic, and there is much to be learned from studying cases of successful and problem-free change, but this paper will take a problem-solving approach, as there do appear to be many more examples of problematic rather problem-free change, at least as far as language education is concerned (Curtis, 2000). Taking this approach, it is important to note that a problem is not necessarily a bad thing. A problem can be defined as: Anything that is difficult to deal with; a puzzle or question set for solution (Collins, 1992). It is likely that the careful consideration of problems may be one of the most effective ways of dealing with them when they do arise, or even of preventing them from arising in the first place.

The nine categories of problems discussed below are not listed in any order of importance (nor does the length of each discussion reflect any degree of severity), as each educational context and setting has unique features, on which depend the type of problems, their magnitude, the order in which they appear, etc. In terms of their

generality, some of the problems may be applicable to any form of change, most apply to change within organizations and institutions, and a number of them are specific to education, language education, and sometimes English language education in particular.

1. Change for the sake of change

One of the inherent tensions embodied within any notion or model of change is that between stability versus growth and development. If growth is assumed to be desirable, and growth, by definition, cannot occur without change, it may be argued that constant change is necessary in order to sustain growth. However, this line of reasoning may be 'faulty' if it leads to the belief that change is the end in itself, i.e., that change should occur because change is 'a good thing'. Firstly, change is a process, and as such is a means not an end. Secondly, such a belief is likely to lead to inadequate analysis of the present state or condition or the intended change before attempting to bring about this change. Thirdly, the importance of periods of stability can be easily overlooked or substantially underestimated, as discussed below.

2. Need for periods of stability and continuity not realized/ addressed

In the action-oriented 'act now, think later' style of educational leadership and management, the need for periods of change to be punctuated by periods without change can be overlooked. This is not to imply that change, whether biological, political or educational, occurs within discrete and readily identifiable time periods. As noted above, it is a process, making beginnings and endings difficult, if not impossible, to pinpoint accurately. However, language teachers and learners, as well as all of the administrative infrastructure that is supposed to be there to support them, need time to adjust to change, and it logically follows that the greater the change the more time is likely to be needed. Insufficient periods of relatively little change are likely to result in: repetition of previous errors of judgment (i.e., lack of learning); lack of clear goals, aims or objectives (short- and long-term) that the planned change is supposed to bring about; and incomplete (or no) evaluation of the existing state of affairs before attempting to implement change. This also raises the question of size: How can the magnitude of an educational change be estimated? The commonest methods seem to be based on a fiscal model, relating financial cost with examination scores, which may not be the method chosen by the 'end users'. Though this question is beyond the scope of this paper, it is nonetheless an important one.

3. Politically and economically driven change

It can be claimed that we exist and function decreasingly in a primarily political world, and increasingly in an economic one. The idea of 'globalization' and 'global markets' has been given even greater impetus by the proliferation of the World Wide Web and the Internet (Untangling E-Economies, 2000), leading to predictions of entirely new e-conomies of scale. As part of this market model, education, and perhaps English language education (ESL/EFL) in particular, is now widely seen as a commodity; a product to be manufactured, packaged and sold for maximum profit. Consequently, educational policy changes may have more to do with economic aspirations. Or, perhaps political and economic forces of change may no longer be distinguishable. Whatever the relationship, the main problem is the same: when political and/or economic concerns override or even cancel out pedagogical ones, the educational change process is unlikely to result in successful outcomes for the 'end users', i.e., teachers and learners.

4. Resistance to change

This might be considered the opposite of Point 1 above, a tendency to embrace change without sufficient, critical forethought, i.e., a tendency to reject change reflexively. This resistance can come not only from teachers, but also from parents and the learners themselves. Recent examples of this include Hong Kong parents protesting at the Government's reducing and limiting of the number of schools allowed to operate as English medium of instruction (EMI) schools (Kwok, 1998); and teachers resisting the Hong Kong Government's attempts to introduce compulsory language testing for teachers of English and Chinese (benchmarking) (Li, 2000). In addition to Points 1, 2 and 3 discussed above, there are at least three additional common reasons for this kind of resistance:

- Lack of consultation and lack of genuine attempts to elicit input from those most directly affected by the changes: classroom teachers, learners, parents, etc.
- Communication breakdown between 'stakeholders' (initiators and implementers)
- Lack of trust between 'stakeholders'

It is worth noting here that trust is recognized as a key element of not only interpersonal communication (Barker and Barker, 1993, p.158; Verderber and Verderber, 1992, p.338) but in organizational communication also (Vik and Gilsdorf, 1994).

5. Change initiators 'too far' from everyday classroom 'realities'

One of the most interesting contradictions in teaching today, which apparently exists in many countries and contexts, is that often, the more teaching experience we gather, the more 'senior' in the institutional hierarchy we become. However, with the growth of 'accountability' – and it has been argued that this may be little more than a business buzz-word euphemism for 'control' (Curtis, 2000) – the more senior we become as teachers, the higher up the hierarchy we go, and the further away we are (taken) from the classroom. Instead, we spend more and more time reading/writing memos, on committees, in meetings, etc. This has a direct effect on the management of educational change, as generally teachers on the lower rungs of the ladder are not able to initiate institutional change, but it is usually these teachers who are in the classroom all day, everyday, and it is they who are given the responsibility of attempting to implement change.

If the change initiators are relatively far-removed from the day to day classroom life of their school, and if they have not been trained in the skills necessary to bring about successful change in educational contexts, such as conflict resolution (see Everard and Morris, 1990, pp.180-181), this raises the question of what are they basing their change management strategy on. If, for example, they are basing proposed changes on their own experiences of education, from their distant past as students, or their less distant but still potentially far removed past as teachers, then great problems are likely to result, as so much may have changed since then.

6. Change uninformed by teacher/learner-generated, classroom-based research

The kinds of institutional hierarchies identified in Point 6 above, though largely unavoidable, contribute to a situation in which teachers' and learners' experiential knowledge, in this case, of change, are at best undervalued and at worst overlooked or ignored completely (either accidentally or deliberately). It is curious that economic models of consumers and markets (see Point 3 above) being so widely applied to education, and perhaps especially to income-generating English language courses, appear to have focused firmly on notions of profit and loss whilst giving little if any attention to notions of 'customer service,' 'after sales support' and 'money-back guarantees.' If these aspects of the market model were to be given more attention, learners (and teachers) would be at the center of the consultation process, rather than on the receiving end of decisions made high above them.

One approach which has made the voice of teachers and learners more audible, and which is now well established in education, is action research. Although the use of action research in relatively new to second language education in Asia, it is attracting more and more interest as it recognizes the roles that teachers and learners can and should play as classroom-based researchers and as experts within their own domains. Action research, by definition, is involved in exploring change, making it a natural part of learner-centered and teacher-centered approaches to change (Curtis, 1999c, 1999d, 1999e).

7. Changes in our understanding of language teaching/ learning processes not reflected in educational change implementation processes

Richards and Rodgers (1988), in their brief, introductory history of language teaching (pp.1-13), from Grammar-Translation to the late 1980's, point out that "Changes in language teaching methods throughout history have reflected changes in the kind of proficiency learners need" (p.1). Although this is doubtless the case, there are a number of other forces which have shaped these methodological changes, such as our view of language, our understanding of first and second language learning processes, and of learners' and teachers' roles in this process (Larsen-Freeman, 1998). Ellis (1992) supports this point of view, when he states in his introduction that "the study of SLA is still in its infancy and there are still more questions than answers" (p.1). As language teachers and researchers, we are aware of these changing understandings, partly as we contribute to them, directly and indirectly. It is possible that, in one of many institutional ironies, more senior teachers, as described in Point 5 above, have more time to read and keep up to date with such changes. However, it is equally possible that the reverse is true, and that those in a position to effect system-wide and far-reaching changes are less informed than those most directly affected by the changes. This is, needless to say, a highly undesirable situation.

8. Lack of awareness or misunderstanding about educational change processes

Even if the change initiators are teachers in touch with the day-to-day classroom realities of language teaching and learning, it is unlikely or less likely that they have had the opportunity to formally study organizational change processes (as people in corporate contexts are likely to have had; see Introduction above). With reference to English language teaching in particular, Kennedy (1988) identified six inter-related subsystems within which educational innovation generally has to operate: cultural, political, administrative, educational, institutional and the classroom (p.332). Others can be added to these six, for example, increasingly influential socio-economic

subsystems (see Point 3 above). This gives some indication of the dynamic and complex nature of educational and organizational change, which is being increasingly recognized and reported on.

MacGilchrist, Myers and Reed (1997), for example, point out that "Change is complex because it is not linear or mechanistic" (p.12). Hoffman, Reed and Rosenbluth (1997) refer to Fullan's (1991) description of change as being "uncontrollably complex..[and]..inherently unpredictable" (p.7), and describe their own experience of educational change as a long and difficult journey, which relates to Point 9 below. Underestimating such complexity can lead to a number of problems, such as seeking short-term and/or easily measurable benefits from long-term processes like language teaching-learning, and unforeseen domino/side-effects as a result of mistakenly assuming that just one part of a large, interdependent system can be changed without affecting other parts.

9. *Emotional and personal effects of professional change underestimated or not realized/addressed*

The relationship between the complexity of change and the demands of changing are summed up succinctly by Brindley and Hood (1990): "Bringing about any kind of change is an extremely long, complex and difficult business" (p.256). However, the close relationship between the personal and professional demands of change are more specifically identified by, for example, Hargreaves and Fullan (1992), who state that: "It [teacher development] also involves changing the person the teacher is" (p.7). Similarly, Bailey (1992) noted that, for the teachers in her study, "once the personal change occurred, professional development followed naturally – indeed, almost inevitably" (p.269).

What might be considered 'the human cost of change' is also becoming increasingly well-documented. Levin and Riffel (1998) refer to our being "bombarded" (p.13) with change, whilst Whitaker (1997) refers to our constant struggles to keep up with relentless change (p.viii), and Field and Barksdale-Ladd (1997) explain that, for them, learning to adapt to change was frustrating and exhausting (p.205), requiring much time (p.214) and much energy (p.215).

In English language education too, the personal as well as personnel effects of change have been recognized for some time. For example, Nunan (1985) introduced his book on trends and issues in language teaching course design with a section on change, in which he makes the following observation: "Understandably, the giddy pace of change has left many teachers completely bemused" (p.viii).

It is possible that little can be done to alleviate these symptoms of change, but at least an awareness of them, and preferably beyond awareness towards empathy, could do much to help respond to these understandable reactions if and when they appear.

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Conclusions: Possible solutions

As was explained at the beginning of this paper, focusing on problems is not necessarily negative, as this can be of great value in taking preventative measures, or developing problem-solving strategies if these measures are ineffective. Therefore, having considered some of the most common problems in the management of change in language education, it will be useful to now consider some of the problem-solving and problem-avoiding advice given by researchers in this area.

Fullan (1991, p.106-7) gives the following advice to (head) teachers:

1. Do not assume that your version of what the change should be is the one that should be implemented.
2. Assume that any significant innovation, if it is to result in change, requires individual implementers to work out their own meaning.
3. Assume that conflict and disagreement are not only inevitable but fundamental to successful change.
4. Assume that most people need pressure to change (even in directions they desire).
5. Assume that effective change takes time.
6. Do not assume that the reason for lack of implementation is outright rejection of the values embodied in the change, or hard-core resistance to all change.
7. Do not expect all or even most people or groups to change.
8. Assume that you will need a plan that is based on the above assumptions and addresses the factors known to affect implementation.
9. Assume that no amount of knowledge will ever make it totally clear what action should be taken.
10. Assume that changing the culture of institutions is the real agenda, not implementing single innovations.

MacGilchrist et al (1997) identify "six key interrelated messages" (p.9) for managing educational change in schools:

- change takes time
- a school's capacity to change will vary
- change is complex
- change needs to be well led and well managed
- teachers need to be the main agents of change
- the pupils need to be the main focus for change.

Kennedy and Kennedy (1996), working with ESL/EFL teachers, also give six points in answer to the question: What conclusions can we draw about change and its evaluation? (pp.359-360):

1. Beliefs about the innovation, about its consequences and the contextual variables associated with it are all important in determining behaviour…
2. We should beware of using attitudinal measures alone as indicators of future behaviour…
3. We need to take a systemic view of change…
4. We should include observation of classrooms in any evaluation of implementation of change…
5. In any change process it is important to involve respected/powerful groups that may influence teacher behaviour…
6. We should perhaps design around the context rather than impose a change on it.

Based on the nine points identified in the main body of this paper, an additional list can now be put forward, which hopefully builds and extends existing advice:

1. Avoid 'change for the sake of change': Aim for planned and purposeful change with clear aims/objectives, goals or targets which can be assessed both formatively and summatively.
2. Build in periods of stability and continuity: Allow sufficient periods of 'acclimatization' for people to get used to one set of changes before attempting to bring about another.
3. Politically and economically driven change is inevitable: However pedagogical motives should also be an integral and critical part of the educational change force/motive.
4. Resistance to change: This may come from many different quarters for many different reasons. The better the reasons are understood, the more likely it is that the fears underlying the objections can be aired and addressed.
5. Change initiators 'too far' from everyday classroom 'realities': Change initiators in language education should have recent, firsthand experience of the language teaching and learning process (preferably both as a language teacher and as a language learner).
6. Change informed by teacher/learner-generated, classroom-based research: Teachers and learners constitute vast reserves of largely untapped knowledge and experience of successful and successful educational change, which should be recognized.
7. Changes in our understanding of language teaching/learning processes should be reflected in the approach to change implementation and management in language education.

8. High levels of awareness and deep understanding of educational change processes are unlikely to develop without conscious learning: This may mean teacher-managers becoming learners.
9. The personal costs and effects of professional change, at all levels, from the institutional to the individual, are great but may be underestimated so need to be addressed from the outset.
10. The complexity of change and the interrelationships between factors means that none of the above difficulties operate in a vacuum: Each one of these difficulties can be the cause and/or effect of any one of a number of other difficulties.

It is possible to criticize such guidelines, for example, for the assumptions on which they appear to based, for being over-generalizations, or for not offering concrete enough rules and regulations to be followed. However, as this paper has shown, educational change, perhaps especially where changes in language education are concerned, does not lend itself to simple analyses or easy answers. Such guidelines are, at best, useful/helpful advice based on research-generated findings and experiential, reflective accounts. The uniqueness of each language education context requires that such advice be adapted, tailored and revised, or even rejected and re-written, as the context dictates.

The Author

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Nonverbal Communication Skills in the EFL Curriculum

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Abstract

In striving to attain communicative competence, concentration on acquisition of verbal skills has set the standard while inclusion of the intricate and indispensable network of nonverbal communication skills has remained largely overlooked. In fact, the communicative channel of nonverbal behavior has been treated as an incidental and unnecessary secondary social skill. The result is that the second language learner faces special challenges in acquiring nonverbal skills. First, even though nonverbal communication methods are governed by a complex and unwritten set of culture-based rules, they are clearly recognizable and comprehensible by all members of the target language group. In addition, nonverbal behavior is used simultaneously and spontaneously and almost always produced unconsciously.

Even though production or display of nonverbal skills would necessarily depend upon the learners' goals and choices, teaching recognition, comprehension, and even awareness of nonverbal communication skills must be included as an indispensable part of the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) curriculum.

Introduction

Consider trying to understand the intended message of the speaker if the auditory portion, their voice tone, and the visual image are all absent. This rather simple situation can immediately and succinctly enable foreign language teachers to understand the confusion, marginalization, and helplessness that students experience if teaching the requisite skills of nonverbal communication are neglected.

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The challenges that the three interacting components of nonverbal communication which include the visual communication system, the auditory system, and the invisible component pose for second language learners, are profound. The formidable task of acquiring a complex, multidimensional skill, which is defined by unwritten display rules, that can vary according to gender, age, status, and context and which can further be transmitted in a flood of conscious and unconscious culture-based messages are both the reasons why acquisition is difficult, but at the same time absolutely essential. Burgoon concludes that "verbal and nonverbal channels are inextricably intertwined in the communication of the total meaning of an interpersonal exchange" (cited in Knapp & Miller, 1985, p. 347).

In striving to attain communicative competence, concentration on acquisition of verbal skills has set the standard, while inclusion of the intricate and indispensable network of nonverbal communication skills has remained largely overlooked. In fact, the communicative channel of nonverbal behavior has been treated as an incidental and unnecessary secondary social skill. The result is that the second language learner faces special challenges in acquiring nonverbal skills.

While nonverbal behavior can be considered innate and spontaneous, its basis lies in the biological traits that every human being possesses. Wincing when someone attempts to slap us or when a pebble hits the car windshield is a reflexive reaction. Likewise, when a person feels insecure, they may experience sweaty palms or the tightening of the stomach muscles as reflexive reactions. The fact that individuals are born with some of these nonverbal tendencies is further illustrated by the fact that even blind people move their hands when they talk, although they have never seen or been aware of anyone else doing it.

On the other hand, some nonverbal behaviors are learned in much the same way spoken language is acquired. By observing and modeling the behavior of the individuals in their environment, a child learns not only to speak, but to behave in the same manner as their role models. Consequently, a language learner, regardless of whether they are acquiring the first or second language, reflects those patterns.

The symbols of nonverbal communication, including their assigned meaning and their recognized use, form a basis of the skills that are learned as part of a person's cultural experiences. For example, every culture has its own body language. Based on cultural tradition in Thailand, people refrain from touching in public. However in Russia and France, men and women openly embrace as a part of the greeting ritual (Samovar & Porter, 1991). Koreans feel uncomfortable when their conversation partner uses too much eye contact. On the other hand, Arabs are known to engage in a great deal of direct gazing. In Mexico, conversation is highly valued. In contrast, Buddhists feel a peaceful mind and wisdom come during moments of silence (Samovar & Porter). These examples demonstrate that the use of nonverbal communication is learned in a cultural specific context.

In Korea today, acquiring English as a foreign language usually entails years of intensive study of grammar, taught through translation and memorization in the students' mother tongue. As a result, efforts to produce speakers that approximate communicative competence have failed. Consideration of the sociolinguistic aspects of language acquisition has been all but ignored. In 1970, Birdwhistell asserted that "probably no more than 30-35 per cent of the social meaning of a conversation or an interaction is carried by the words" (p. 157-8). His early research emphasized that mastering the technicalities and complexities of nonverbal behavior must form a mandatory component of total communicative competence. Therefore, nonverbal communication skills should form a central part of the curriculum in teaching English as a foreign language in Korea today.

Historical Perspectives

Ancient Greek and Roman scholars commented on what is today referred to as nonverbal communication. For example, Quintilian's *Institutio Oratoria*, which was written in the first century, is an important source of information on gesture. Tracing the history of fields including philosophy, anthropology, psychology, sociology, linguistics, psychiatry, dance and speech, would no doubt reveal important antecedents for today's work. One of the most influential pre-twentieth century works was Darwin's *Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals* in 1872. This work spawned the modern study of facial expressions and many of Darwin's observations and ideas were validated by other researchers. In 1925, Kretschmer produced a book, *Physique and Character*. In 1940, Sheldon authored a book, *The Varieties of Human Physique*. Sheldon's belief that certain characteristics are associated with certain body types (the thin ectomorph, the muscular mesomorph, and the fatty endomorph) is still being debated. In 1951, his work was featured on the cover of *Life Magazine*. In order to develop a catalogue of body types, Sheldon was permitted to photograph freshman students in the nude at Yale, Princeton, and other colleges. The students were told that it was a project involving posture, and thousands complied, including the future U.S. President George Bush and the future first lady Hillary Rodham Clinton.

In 1941, Efron wrote a book, *Gesture and Environment*, which has become a classic. His work documented the important role of culture in shaping the use of gestures and body movement. At the time, Efron's theories were contrary to the belief of many (including Adolf Hitler) that people's behavior is not subject to much modification by changing contexts and environments. Birdwhistell's *Introduction to Kinesics* appeared in 1952 and Hall's *Silent Language* in 1959. Davitz wrote *The Communication of Emotional Meaning* in 1964.

The 1970's were a time of summarizing and synthesizing. Ekman's *Emotion in the Human Face*, in 1972; Mehabian's *Nonverbal Communication*, in 1972; Argyle's

Bodily Communication in 1975 were all attempts to bring together the growing literature on such research into a single volume. During the 1980s and 1990s, nonverbal research continued to shift from studying non-interactive situations to studying interactive ones, from an emphasis on one culture to an emphasis on the intercultural and multicultural spheres. Leathers wrote *Successful Nonverbal Communication* in 1997, and Calloway-Thomas, Cooper and Blake published *Intercultural Communication: Roots and Routes* in 1999.

Definition and Elements of Nonverbal Communication

According to Dale Leathers, nonverbal communication can be defined as "the use of interacting sets of visual, vocal, and invisible communication systems and subsystems by communicators with the systematic encoding and decoding of nonverbal symbols and signs for the purposes(s) of exchanging consensual meanings in specific communicative contexts" (1997, p. 11).

In order to comprehend all aspects of Leathers' classification system, it is necessary to define two related categories known as high context culture and low context culture. For example, cultures that rely heavily on verbal language are referred as low context and those that put more stock in nonverbal messages are known as high context. Anthropological studies show these cultures can be classified and placed on a continuum according to the emphasis placed either on verbal or nonverbal messages as the tools which convey meaning. At one end of the continuum are the German, French, Scandinavian, North American, and English societies that believe the verbal message is extremely important. Conversely, the Japanese, Chinese, and Koreans believe that most meaning is found in the context in which people communicate. People from the latter group understand and interpret the conveyed contextual meaning without reverting to spoken words. Indeed, the Korean language actually contains the word *nunchi,* which literally means "being able to communicate through the eyes."

Leathers (1997) classified nonverbal communication into three interacting, but rather complex, components: the visual communication system, the auditory, and the invisible. Further, he claimed that the most important of these is the visual system since it contains the major source of nonverbal information. This system is displayed through three critical subsystems: *kinesic*, *proxemic*, and *artifactual* (Leathers). Kinesic includes facial expressions, eye behavior, gestures, and posture. Facial and particularly eye behavior may be the most readily noticed since these areas are where most emotions are either displayed or, in fact, hidden, and the majority of these are exhibited unconsciously. Indeed, Leathers held that "no other nonverbal communication system rivals facial expressions for either speed of transmitting meanings or

for the communication of emotional information" (1997, p. 14). Oculesics or eye communication also has a fascinating subcategory referred to as pupillometrics, which analyzes the dilation of the eye pupil. Eye behavior and cues may vary depending on duration, direction, and quality, as well as intent, such as mutual gaze. In particular, avoidance of eye contact communicates a message that is not only easily perceived, but the recipient may sometimes feel "screams" the intent of the sender. In a high context culture such as China or Korea, the avoidance of eye contact may serve several functions such as allowing others to maintain their privacy or to limit unpleasant stimuli or feelings. However, the most widespread use of averted eye contact in Korean society is to express respect for others with seniority. Conversely, in a low context culture such as the United States or Italy, refusing to look at the conversation partner(s) is considered, not only socially unacceptable, but also as a concerted effort at coldness and closing the communication link. Arab interpersonal communication relies heavily on eye behavioral cues, and the speaker without fail will naturally position themselves at a range close enough for observation of the listener's eyes to determine interest, excitement, or simply to observe the impression of the intended message. Imagine the impact of a cross cultural exchange between Arabs and another cultural group where averted eye contact is the norm, such as the Japanese!

The second subsystem is proxemics, which is the use of space, distance, and territory. Actually, a person who comes from a country where clearly defined and rather expansive use of personal space is the norm such as the United States might wince upon hearing this referred to as a "subsystem". However, the simple statement made by Richmond and McCroskey expresses it all: "space talks" (1995, p. 293). Finally, artifactual communication includes the appearance of the face, body, hairstyle, and all options available to alter these.

Next, the auditory system, which is sometimes referred to as paralinguistics, classifies the distinctive qualities of vocal cues and unlike most other elements of nonverbal behavior can consciously be controlled. The nine different sound attributes include loudness, pitch, tone, rate, duration, quality, regularity, articulation, pronunciation, and silence (Leathers 1997). One interesting characteristic in the high context culture of Arabic countries reveals that loudness is considered to be an indication of strength and sincerity, while speaking with a soft voice reflects deviousness and weakness. An illustration of high context cultures, such as China and Japan, demonstrates that silence is considered one of the most profound tools of communication. Conversely in low context cultures, such as Germany and the United States, the use of silence could also produce a profound effect but with obviously opposite consequences.

Leathers (1997) referred to the last group, which includes olfactics (smell), chronemics (time), and haptics (touch), as invisible since the first two are defined by messages that are cannot be seen. Conversely, haptics can obviously be seen but

also can be manifested by cutaneous receptors. Leather believed that the use and impact of this category is limited and did not merit substantial consideration. However, a strong case can be made for their effect on communication when considered, not only individually, but also when used either in combination or as a whole. Studies conducted by Almaney and Alwan (cited in Gudykunst and Kim, 1997) clearly illustrates this point. Their research revealed that Arabs regard smell as a necessary element of interpersonal communication and feel reassured when they can smell their friends. In fact, in some rural Middle Eastern areas, when Arab marriage intermediaries inspect a prospective bride, they may request to smell her in order to catch any lingering odor of anger or discontent.

However, further consideration is appropriate for the cultural differences of touch as they relate to the all important first meeting between interlocutors and the custom of greetings in each culture, country, and hemisphere. For example, the French not only touch but kiss three times on the cheek when they meet. The Italians limit their cheek kisses to only two. However, a true Englishman would employ a formal handshake but never extend the greeting custom to include a kiss. The wide spectrum of nonverbal greeting customs would also include those employed by someone from Texas who may give, not only an extended handshake, but also a hardy slap on the back as a sign of a warm and socially acceptable greeting. Conversely, the Japanese and Koreans do not touch but bow deeply from the waist with an emphasis on avoidance of any eye contact. However, recent influence by Western culture can be seen in the adoption by some Koreans of the Western practice of extending a handshake and some limited eye contact upon meeting for the first time. In fact, the Koreans have synthesized this practice to include the combination of a handshake and a slight bow.

Hall (1959) believed that the world is divided into cultures that touch and cultures that do not touch. Likewise people in different cultures attribute very different meanings to touch. For example in countries where touch is common such as Latin America, southern European, and Arab cultures, absence or limited use of touch carries a very profound meaning and can be interpreted as coldness or hostility. Conversely, Scandinavians, the British, or North Americans would scarcely even notice this subtle standard and may be left wondering what went wrong in a social encounter.

In addition, time and its defined use by a culture reflects a nonverbal communication skill that can contribute to improved communication skills for a second language learner. For many Latin American and Mediterranean countries where the pace of life is much slower and the generally accepted "tomorrow is o.k., but next week is even better" slogan of daily life can prove to be a significant cross-cultural adjustment, as well as, an obstacle for communication. For example, learning to understand when arriving about thirty minutes late for dinner is not only socially acceptable, but the norm as is generally the case in the United States. This can prove to be quite a contrast to Korean customs where punctuality is strictly observed, especially for meals.

Functions of Nonverbal Communication

In order to grasp the full scope of nonverbal communication, it is critical to recognize that it can be used either independently or in conjunction with verbal communication (Calloway-Thomas, Cooper, & Blake, 1999). Nonverbal behavior performs several functions, including its role in forming first impressions and its variety of possible relationships with verbal communication (Berko, Rosenfeld, & Samovar, 1997).

First impressions are based almost entirely upon nonverbal information, such as body shape, clothing, jewelry, eye contact, and facial expressions. Usually in a first meeting, the subtle, yet defining information, of what, where, and how shapes, reinforces, and defines whatever opinion is formed. The importance of nonverbal behavior, however, does not stop with first impressions. Rather, nonverbal communication is always an important part of the total communication process, whether verbal, nonverbal, or a combination of both.

In some situations, nonverbal behavior may be used to complement words. For example, pointing into the conference room while saying, "They are waiting inside." A complementing nonverbal message conveys the same meaning as the verbal message and, therefore, completes or supplements the verbal message. Making the gesture with the raised hand and using the index finger and the thumb to form a circle to show "o.k." while saying, "The food is o.k.," would also be a complementary verbal and nonverbal message.

Nonverbal communication may also accent words. An illustration of this would occur when a speaker inserts a deliberate pause before making a point in order to emphasize the significance of an idea. Likewise, if a scowling speaker pounds a fist on the table during an argument this adds impact to the spoken words.

Nonverbal messages also may be used to regulate both verbal and nonverbal communication. For example, signaling a waiter to come to the table is an attempt to regulate his actions. Similarly, if the waiter responds by holding up his index finger, he is regulating the waiting time. Also, placing the index finger in a vertical on the lips to signal a noisy child to be quiet is an attempt to regulate volume.

Besides working in conjunction with spoken words, nonverbal communication can substitute for spoken words. For example, nodding the head up and down to indicate agreement instead of verbally stating it, or holding up two fingers in response to the question "How many scoops of ice cream do you want?" are both examples of substituting nonverbal for verbal messages.

Not surprisingly, nonverbal communication can contradict spoken words. For example, glancing away from a friend as the speaker hesitantly says, "I like your new

hairstyle," provides the listener with a contradictory message: positive words and evasive eye movement. Common practice in North America culture associates averted eye contact with loss of credibility by the speaker, and the effects that this would cause in business transactions are obvious.

In addition to complementing, accenting, regulating, substituting, and contradicting verbal behavior, nonverbal communication has several identifiable characteristics that highlight its usefulness (Berko, Rosenfeld, & Samovar, 1997):

1. Emotions and feelings are more accurately and easily communicated nonverbally than with words. While words are best for conveying ideas, nonverbal communication is considered more effective for conveying feelings and emotions. This difference between verbal and nonverbal messages may stem from the fact that verbal messages need to be learned and many nonverbal messages are innate. When considering how people express emotions and feelings nonverbally, the role of societal influence should not be overlooked. For example, in many cultures outward signs of emotion are accepted as natural. People from the Middle East are generally expressive and animated. However, the Japanese often consider external displays of emotion of feelings as rude and an invasion of privacy. Consider the implications of the English expression "Keep a stiff upper lip."

2. Nonverbal behaviors are not easily controlled consciously. Since most nonverbal behaviors are produced spontaneously, they are relatively free of distortion or deception, especially in comparison to the more easily controlled verbal messages. For example, a blushing face, stammering speech, or clenching a jaw are all involuntary actions when a person feels nervous or embarrassed. The behavior is automatic, an unconscious reflex. Likewise, when verbal and nonverbal communication conflict, the nonverbal messages are characteristically the more accurate reflection of feelings. Because nonverbal behaviors are often below our level of awareness and are not easily controlled, most individuals regard them as the more accurate indicator of a speaker's feelings. Due to the ease with which verbal communication can be manipulated, the presumption is that if someone is intent on concealing information or lying, the appropriate words can be selected more easily than faking nonverbal behavior. No amount of verbal protesting and stating, "I'm not embarrassed," can cover up a red, blushed face, and averted eye contact.

3. Nonverbal communication is more effective than verbal communication for expressing messages in a less confrontational manner. If the speaker is worried that their comments are likely to elicit rebuke or embarrassment, it is very simple to control the verbal message through word choice. In this instance, the nonverbal behavior is less invasive and can help to avoid confrontation.

4. Nonverbal behaviors indicate to both the speaker and the listener if the verbal message is understood and how it is interpreted. The key to grasping the full

content of the verbal message is the interpretation of the nonverbal underpinnings. In other words, the cues such as tone of voice, facial expression, and body language, can either complement or contradict the words.

The Current State in Korea

The current status of communication styles and methods in Korea is firmly embedded in the past. The many thousands of years of influence of the Chinese language has had a profound effect on communication styles in every corner of Asia since the essence of the communication was contained in each individual Chinese ideograph. As a result, nonverbal communication as a channel for conveying the core meaning of the message did not exist. The pervading influence of Confucianism further shaped the roots of Asian communication styles. The main tenets of Confucianism of modesty and virtue were achieved by preserving one's public "face". Silence was considered a prerequisite in attaining these goals. In addition, communication response styles were collective and never exhibited in an individualistic manner. In other words, all emotional reactions were suppressed. Remnants of these influences are entrenched in Korea today.

An unfortunate situation in a prominent, traditional Korean restaurant in Seoul clearly illustrates this point. A waitress was delivering a huge tray of food to a traditional, low dining table when she accidentally tripped and fell upon entering the table area. All of the hot and cold food scattered onto the guests, the floor, and the luxurious silk cushions. The woman quickly arose, turned, and ran to the kitchen. However, one fleeting glance of her face revealed her rigorous training. Even though she quickly retreated from the scene, her facial expression, gestures, and demeanor never reflected any hint that the obviously embarrassing incident had even occurred.

Likewise, a smiling face is rarely seen in photographs. In particular, the somber bride hopes to conquer the prevailing belief that a smiling bride will give birth to a girl. In the male dominated Confucian society of Korea today, a baby boy is a guarantee of the family fortune and lineage.

Regardless of the glut of Western culture and the extended years of U.S. military presence in Korea, recognition, use, and the significance of eye contact causes apprehension in daily communication. The traditional Confucian style of averting eye contact, especially with one's elders, remains common practice even today. In addition, the concept of proxemics, particularly in public places, is almost completely nonexistent. It is not uncommon to board an empty subway train only to have a lone passenger enter at the next stop and plop down so close as to prevent the other passenger from raising an elbow. In addition, the same situation will most likely occur in an empty restaurant.

Cross cultural differences can account for some basic communication difficulties. For example, something as basic as counting can cause a completely different message to be received. Most Koreans count by folding the fingers inward toward the palm. Conversely, most Westerners count by extending the fingers outward. Consequently, a hand with four fingers extended and the thumb folded inward would be interpreted by Koreans as one and by Westerners as four. While this is not a life or death situation, it nevertheless exemplifies a rather simple situation that would cause confusion in the intended message. Indeed, it clearly shows that nonverbal communication behavior is a skill which must be acquired.

In Korea, emphasis has been placed primarily on the verbal component of language acquisition by clinging to traditional Korean teaching methods of rote memorization, translation, and using the mother tongue as the primary medium of instruction. Basically, sociolinguistic skills have been disregarded as a discrete skill, and as a result, are not considered in curriculum planning. These methods and approaches to language acquisition have failed to produce learners that possess full communicative competence. In fact, intermediate to advanced students frequently express confusion and feelings of uncertainty and marginalization due to their inadequate sociolinguistic skills, particularly those of humor and nonverbal communication.

Practical Implementation of Nonverbal Skills in the Curriculum

Most of an individual's ability to send and receive nonverbal signals is derived from the process of daily living (Knapp & Hall, 1997). In short, nonverbal skills are acquired through observation, imitation, and replication of the members of the target language group. In addition, responses are adapted to the coaching, feedback, and advice of the listeners. This often unconscious process starts in infancy with a baby's mimicry of adult facial expressions. Within the first few days of life, infants can imitate mouth opening and tongue protrusion. After the first few months modeling extends to lip protrusion, finger movements, brow movements, and even different emotional expressions of the face (Feldman, 1982; Meltzoff & Moore, 1983; Termine & Izard, 1988). According to Lewis and Rosenblum (1978), an innate repertoire of facial expressions, innate imitative ability, and selective reinforcement by caretakers combine to produce in a child an understanding of the socially agreed on meanings of different nonverbal cues.

By observing others and receiving feedback, a person learns what behaviors to enact but also how they are performed, with whom, when, where, and with what consequences. Through this socialization process, which involves frequent use of sending and receiving nonverbal messages, and with regular, accurate feedback, a

person's ability improves. Research conducted by Rozelle, Druckman and Baxter (cited in Hargie, 1997) held that expertness in nonverbal communication is acquired through well-informed practice. Experience in what is expected and accepted is received directly or indirectly from the target language environment and input from native speakers. In short, additional contact in a visual format, either from a native speaker informant or indirect exposure to the target language culture through movies or television, is essential in successful attainment of this step of acquisition.

Therefore, in order to provide the required target language input necessary for acquisition, a systematic, organized approach to teaching nonverbal communication must be a core component of the curriculum of foreign language teaching in Korea today. This goal can be easily attained by following some practical steps, and more importantly, by adhering to a policy that emphasizes the inclusion and instruction of nonverbal communication skills that are equal to those of the verbal component. However, it is not the intent nor within the scope of this paper to provide specific lesson plans of such a complex topic. Naturally, extensive consideration should be given to the special challenges that second language learners face in acquiring nonverbal skills, the learners' goals and choices, and specific variables such as age and proficiency level. Therefore, a broad overview of practical methods of implementation will provide the classroom teacher with a structured framework for teaching recognition, comprehension, and even awareness of nonverbal skills.

Naturally one of the first considerations in teaching any language skill is choosing appropriate materials, usually centered on the most current and suitable textbook, in order to meet student goals. A perusal of available texts that deal with nonverbal skills reveal two major problems. One is limited attention at best; a cursory approach to an essential skill. Maximum inclusion of the content area generally consists of no more than one chapter in most conversation textbooks that are designed for either one semester or a complete year. The second, and much more serious problem, is complete neglect. In either situation, the teacher is left without appropriate teaching materials. However, this situation can be addressed through creativity and diligence on the part of the teacher. For example, materials that provide any visual input from the target language group can easily be adapted to produce learning opportunities. Something as simple as photos of people displaying various emotional states provide invaluable learning activities. In fact, using photos as a teaching tool can begin in kindergarten. For example, while teaching the alphabet chart, the concept for likes and dislikes can readily be introduced by using the photo that represents a particular letter such as saying "I like apples" or "I don't like lemons." Photos of this type are easily available from most magazines and are also contained in most photo dictionaries from all major EFL publishers.

Unequivocally, role playing, which is one of the most familiar methods for teaching conversation, is also one of the most effective methods for teaching nonverbal skills. Acquisition is enhanced since the learner has the opportunity to become an

active participant while receiving contextual input. Even basic skills such as how to properly greet someone can be observed, modeled, and learned. This would naturally include how to shake hands, which is a skill that is only acquired experientially. Despite the fact that shaking hands is a vital component in most international situations, the appropriate method is rarely taught. Short of full immersion in the target language environment, role playing furnishes ample occasions for development of awareness, observation, and modeling.

Not surprisingly, one of the most worthwhile and enjoyable tools for teaching and learning nonverbal skills is movies and television. Rich in cultural input, these provide endless opportunities for identification, classification, recognition, and interpretation. An added dimension can be provided by eliminating the sound, so that maximum attention is given to the nonverbal communication methods displayed. However, caution should be exercised in using either movies or television to limit the amount of visual input contained in each lesson. The very nature of the medium provides the maximum amount of nonverbal, as well as, cultural input, and the student could easily feel overwhelmed by a prolonged viewing period. Therefore, videos are better utilized by scheduling shorter viewing sessions followed by class discussions and lecture by the teacher.

Opportunities for visual input can be further expanded to include experiential studies outside the classroom where the student observes either directly or indirectly the target language culture. These field studies can be notably efficacious for developing awareness and interpretations, as well as methods of production of nonverbal skills. Simple methods for recording observation data may need to be taught in order to maximize post-observation class discussion. An overlooked benefit of field studies will be to further synthesize the student to the customs and styles of nonverbal communication in their own language and culture.

Some educators and trainers argue in favor of lectures and reading assignments. Any nonverbal skill is likely to profit somewhat from knowledge obtained from these methods, even though it is difficult to teach people about nonverbal behavior by words alone, and without practice in the skill itself. However, research conducted by Ekman and Friesen (1975) attempted to minimize these problems. In fact, appropriate texts that deal with cross-cultural issues followed by group discussions are invaluable methods for developing awareness and broadening perspectives. Natural discourse generally evolves into a discussion of contrast between cultures, and in fact, leads to recognition of a speaker's own cultural manifestation of nonverbal communication methods. This often neglected step is mandatory before awareness and acquisition is possible in the target language.

In the same vein, special attention should be given to the study of cross-cultural issues when nonverbal skills are a part of the curriculum. Gaining insight in this area will limit misinterpretation and misunderstanding as well as minimize breakdowns in

communication between cultures. For example, something as seemingly insignificant as a hand gesture in one culture may have a completely different use, meaning, and method of production in another. Without appropriate input and instruction, the end result is a mixed message where the second language learner is confused and unsure of the conveyed meaning. Individuals from one culture have been successfully trained to understand and enact characteristic nonverbal behaviors of people from a different culture or subculture (Collet, 1971). Additionally, a more recent method referred to as the "social skills model" which was developed by Michael Argyle (1988) has stimulated a great deal of research and training. While it is naturally impossible, as well as unnecessary, to learn every cultural difference, cross-cultural studies can provide motivation for increased communication competency.

A major category of behavior emphasized in nonverbal skills training is reinforcement, which involves the provision of encouragement and reward to others in the course of interaction. Reinforcers can be both verbal and nonverbal. Verbal reinforcers include acknowledgment and agreement, praise, support, and compliments. Nonverbal reinforcers include the positive or encouraging use of smiles, head nods, eye contact, touching, body proximity, certain gestures like thumbs-up, and voice quality (Hargie, 1997).

Finally, the teacher performs an instrumental part by modeling the appropriate nonverbal communication skill, body language, and gestures. The subtle clues in the emotional context of the teacher's face, voice, and posture blend together simultaneously to deliver the message. Regardless of the size, importance, or urgency, the message is transmitted using a system governed by unwritten rules, which is understood by all native speakers. A simple but necessary skill illustrates the vital contribution of the teacher as role model. Many Asian students, including Koreans, experience extreme difficulty in producing the appropriate head gesture while saying "no." The result is that the listener is confused upon hearing "no" and seeing an up-and-down head nod for "yes." Naturally, the student must practice the side-to-side head movement of the negative response in order to learn. Repeated modeling provided by the teacher is absolutely necessary in this situation. Even practicing and acquiring this simple skill shows the value of teacher input if successful nonverbal skills are to be attained.

However, many teachers may feel inadequate in tackling this area. This problem, in and of itself, is significant in curriculum considerations and should be duly recognized and addressed. Part of the solution lies in raising teacher awareness of the essential component of nonverbal communication, as well as, developing appropriate teacher training methodology. Naturally, this should also include cross-cultural studies for the teacher. Finally, while full immersion in the target language environment may not be practical for all, it remains the most efficient and expeditious method for acquisition of communicative competency for both students and teachers alike. Even a limited sojourn will reap infinite results and provide motivation for future study.

Conclusion

Nonverbal behavior is a multifaceted and complex channel of communication. It not only helps to transmit feelings and emotions, but also regulates interaction with others. In addition, it functions in cooperation with verbal communication to create a total message and convey the full intention of the speaker. Physical appearance, facial gestures, eye behavior, touch, vocal characteristics, body movement, time, and the physical and psychological contexts within which each of these takes place, all contribute to nonverbal communication. Although nonverbal communication often operates either at a low level of awareness or on a completely unconscious level, understanding its role in communication and developing skills in this area of human interaction are crucial in a learner's development as a competent communicator.

Notwithstanding all of the complex interdisciplinary research, can any language teacher deny that the same basic learning processes are used regardless of whether the language learner is an infant learning his or her mother tongue or a student in a second language classroom? It may seem like an over-simplification, but the second language learner must follow the same steps and acquire the same skills as when they naturally learned their first language. Also, a major consideration is the fact that many times the acquisition of the foreign language may occur at a later age and may reflect a conscious effort to learn some aspects that are acquired unconsciously by children when learning their mother tongue. These same processes are understandably, and sometimes regrettably, more complex. Further, the second language learner, in addition to meeting their own individual and specific language goals, requires the same elements that a child utilizes in acquiring their mother tongue, including how to communicate appropriately in social situations. This specifically includes instruction of nonverbal skills that are equal to that of the verbal instruction.

Teaching nonverbal communication is an absolutely fundamental goal in order to prepare students for the complex communication skills that are required in today's global society. In fact, teaching these skills is only the first step in preparing students with the appropriate criteria to function in the target language. Immediate steps must be taken to include these skills in the foreign language teaching curriculum in Korea today. In addition, one of the overlooked benefits is that the student will be more fully prepared to become truly multicultural in intercultural communication.

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Korean Student Exposure to English Listening and Speaking: Instruction, Multimedia, Travel Experience and Motivation

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Abstract

This study aims to provide an empirical foundation concerning Korean university students' exposure to English listening and speaking via three settings: instruction, multimedia, and sojourning experiences to an English-speaking country. Furthermore, the relationships between motivation to learn English and the types of English listening and speaking exposure are examined. The results suggest that Korean university students have had very little lifetime English listening and speaking exposure. Further, a relationship between motivation and receiving English instruction from native English-speaking instructors was found. Discussions will be offered concerning the implications of these findings for English language instruction in Korea.

Introduction

Korean academic institutions began intensifying their English language programs in the mid-nineties, promoting English oral communication skills (listening and speaking). For example, in 1995 two government programs, EPIK (English Program in Korea) and KORETTA (Korean English Teacher Training), were initiated and mandated in part, to provide English listening and speaking exposure in the Korean pre-university classrooms. Also, pilot programs, e.g., PLEP (POSTECH Live-in English Program, at Pohang University of Science and Technology; Dechesne, Goodwin, Baker & Cho, 1996) targeting English oral communication skills were attempted. In addition, in Korea the use of the TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) test, which emphasizes English language listening comprehension and reading

(Gilfert, 1996), along with oral placement tests (e.g., Farrell, 1998) became popular, receiving greater attention as instruments of assessment in evaluating English communication skills. Furthermore, Korean universities began introducing mandatory English conversation courses into their curriculum base, thereby making English conversation courses a requirement for graduation. These trends were indicative of a shift in emphases toward the teaching of English oral communication skills in Korea.

However, course designs, book decisions, and teacher choices (e.g., targeting the teaching of oral communication) were largely made based on speculative estimates and anecdotal information about students – if students were considered at all. Empirical studies about Korean students that take us beyond mere intuition and speculation are difficult to find. Studies, for example, of socio-cultural, cognitive, and affective variables are needed to elicit greater understanding of students and to determine appropriate classroom strategies and materials. While research about the exact connection between learner variables and second language acquisition is not yet conclusive, therefore, making predictions about the exact effects that individual characteristics will have on language learning difficult, the importance of an accurate understanding of personal learner variables is generally accepted by both education and second language theorists (see, for example Brown, 1994; Harmer, 1991; and Lightbown & Spada, 1993).

Factors such as student motivation (e.g., Bandura, 1997; Brown, 1994; Gardner, 1985; Schumann, 1986), appropriate input (Krashen, 1982; Lightbown & Spada, 1993; Long, 1985; Nunan, 1999), teacher's expectations of students (Harmer, 1991), and culture (e.g., Holmes & Brown, 1997), are known to contribute significantly to the overall success of foreign (second) language learning. (Each of these factors will receive attention, as they relate to English language listening and speaking exposure, in the discussion section below).

This paper – an extension of a project regarding English pronunciation assessment testing (Kim & Margolis, 1999) – was inspired by the surprising results the authors found while collecting background information on participants in that study. The results derived from the background information data suggested less English language listening and speaking exposure than initially expected, which motivated this separate report.[1] As an outgrowth of that project, this paper sets as its humble intention only to offer findings regarding student exposure to English listening and speaking in order to help build an empirical foundation upon which to better understand the educational background of Korean university students learning the English language. It is hoped that these findings may help university teachers and administrators to make appropriate teaching decisions.

Study Objectives

There are four primary objectives for this study. First, to provide empirical data concerning Korean university students' English listening and speaking exposure in three areas: instruction, multimedia, and sojourning experiences to an English-speaking country. Second, to determine the level of motivation of Korean university students in learning the English language. Third, to examine the relationships between different types of English listening and speaking exposure and student motivation to learn English. Finally, to explore the implications of the findings in light of current language-learning issues and theories.

Method

Participant Composition

A group of 359 student participants, from two separate universities in Seoul, Korea[2], were recruited for this study. Of those who indicated their gender, 218 were male and 134 female (7 no responses). The ages ranged from 18 to 29 (M = 21.3, $s.d.$ = 2.3).

Questionnaire

A survey questionnaire was newly developed (Appendix A) to examine Korean student exposure to English listening and speaking via instruction, multimedia, and travel to English-speaking countries.[3] The student participants were directed to include only instruction that involved English listening and speaking exposure, excluding instruction in reading, writing and test-taking courses. The survey also asked students to report their degree of motivation to learn English (as well as various other questions unrelated to the present study, that are reported elsewhere: Kim & Margolis, 1999). In addition, gender and age information was collected.

A first draft of the questionnaire was pilot tested (with a small sample of students, N = 30) for ease of response and administration, and revised where necessary. The final version of the questionnaire was administered to students during class and collected before the class period had ended. The participants were asked to respond honestly and told their response would not affect them in any adverse manner (e.g., affecting their grades or evaluations). The students were also encouraged to seek clarification from the instructor of any and all aspects of the questionnaire that were unclear.

Exposure via Instruction: This section consisted of three two-part questions that sought to gather information concerning students' exposure to English listening and speaking in three settings: formal schools (academic institutions)[4], private institutes (or *hakwons*[5]), and private tutors. For each of the questions, English instruction from native English speakers and *non*-native English speakers were differentiated, which resulted in six response categories: types of instruction (3) by native vs. non-native English-speaking instructors (2).

For each category, the students were asked to write the total number of months, and then the average number of hours per week, they received English listening/speaking instruction. The total number of hours for each category was calculated by multiplying the number of months by four weeks (number of weeks in a month) by the hours per week. The authors of this paper believed that the total number of hours of English listening and speaking instruction would be easier for students to remember in this fashion, rather than doing all the calculation in their heads.

Exposure via Multimedia: For this section, four media were examined: television, radio, cassette tapes, and videotapes. Participants were asked to indicate the estimated *hours per month* they listen to/watch English material using these media, and asked to indicate their exposure time on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *never*, 2 = *1-2 hours*, 3 = *3-5 hours*, 4 = *6-10 hours*, 5 = *more than 10 hours*). Participants were asked to include any and all types of English materials (e.g., movies, news, teaching and entertainment programs, songs, stories, etc.).

Exposure via Travel to English-Speaking Countries: Participants were asked to indicate whether they had traveled to an English-speaking country, and if so, how many months they sojourned there.

Motivation to Learn English: Participants were asked to indicate their motivational level for learning English on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *very motivated* to 3 = *so-so* to 5 = *not motivated at all*.

Procedure

1. Participants were given an English version of the questionnaire to complete during a class period.
2. Teachers assisted the students in the completion of the forms by explaining terms that were unclear.
3. The questionnaires were then collected.
4. The data from the questionnaire was then coded, inputted, and subjected to statistical analyses. The statistical package SPSS, version 5.0.1 for Windows, was used to produce response frequencies, percentages (*%*), means (*M*), standard deviations (*s.d.*) and correlations (*r*) results.

Results

Instruction

How may hours of instruction in English listening and speaking do the participants in this study report? To address this question participants were asked to indicate the total number of lifetime hours of English listening and speaking instruction in three areas: academic institutions, private institutes, and private tutoring.

Table 1
Response Frequencies of Hours of English Listening and Speaking Exposure

	Academic Institution: School [a]		Private Institute: *Hakwon* [b]		Private Individual Tutor	
Instructor/ Lifetime Hours	Native	Non-Native	Native	Non-Native	Native	Non-Native
0	149 (42)	236 (66)	266 (74)	270 (75)	340 (95)	332 (93)
1-20	45 (13)	5 (01)	17 (05)	17 (05)	5 (01)	7 (02)
21-40	52 (15)	21 (06)	19 (05)	24 (07)	4 (01)	5 (01)
41-80	51 (14)	31 (09)	20 (06)	19 (05)	4 (01)	6 (02)
81-120	34 (10)	11 (03)	11 (03)	6 (02)	1 (00)	1 (00)
121-200	15 (04)	13 (04)	14 (04)	10 (03)	3 (01)	6 (02)
201-999	13 (04)	42 (12)	12 (03)	13 (04)	2 (01)	2 (01)

Note: Frequency of responses for each range of hours of exposure to English listening and speaking per situational category.
Parentheses = Percentage of responses per situational category (Total of 359 responses).
Native = Native English-speaking instructor.
Non-native = Non-native English-speaking instructor.
[a] Elementary (Primary), Middle, High School, and University.
[b] Hakwons are privately operated learning institutes for extracurricular instruction.

Response Frequencies (Lifetime Hours): Shown in Table 1 are the response frequencies (and percentages in parentheses) for hours of English listening and speaking exposure according to lifetime hours of exposure. The responses for hours of English listening and speaking exposure were categorized into seven groupings: *zero* (or *never*), *1-20*, *21-40*, *41-80*, *81-120*, *121-200*, and *201-999* hours of exposure.

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As seen in Table 1, the majority of students have had little to no exposure to formal English listening and speaking instruction during their lifetime. For the Academic Institution category, 149 (42%) out of 359 participants responded that they have *never* received English listening and speaking classes from native English speakers (column 2), and 236 (66%) *never* received English listening and speaking classes from non-native English speakers, i.e., native Korean speakers (column 3). As for English listening and speaking lessons at a private institute (*hakwon*), 266 (74%) participants *never* received listening and speaking lessons from native English speakers, and 270 (75%) participants *never* received listening and speaking lessons from non-native English speakers. Finally, 340 (95%) participants have *never* received English listening and speaking tutoring from native English speakers and 332 (93%) have *never* received tutoring from non-native English speakers.

Table 2
Mean Hours of English Listening and Speaking Exposure:
From Native and Non-Native English-speaking Instructors

Instructor/ Situational Category	Native English Speaker	Non-native English Speaker
Academic Institution: School [a]	47.0	92.9
Private Institute: *Hakwon* [b]	31.4	31.0
Individual Private Tutor	4.7	8.0
Total Hours: Lifetime [c]	83.1	131.9

Note: Self-report of lifetime exposure to English listening and speaking instruction (Mean hours).

[a] Elementary (Primary), Middle, High School, and University.

[b] Hakwons are privately operated learning institutes for extracurricular instruction.

[c] Total hours: Lifetime for the three situational categories combined.

Mean Hours of English Listening and Speaking Exposure: Table 2 shows the average (mean) lifetime number of hours of English listening and speaking exposure from native (second column) and non-native (third column) English-speaking instructors, according to situational categories. The average total lifetime hours (tabulation of the hours for the three categories) are shown in the bottom row.

For formal academic institutions, participants received, on average, 47.0 and 92.9 hours of English listening and speaking instruction from native and non-native English-speaking instructors, respectively. For private (*hakwons*) institutions, 31.4 and 31.0 hours from native and non-native English-speaking instructors, respectively. Participants received 4.7 hours of tutoring from native English instructors and 8.0 hours from non-native English instructors. The total lifetime hours of English

listening and speaking instruction was 83.1 hours from native English instructors and 131.9 hours from non-native English instructors.

Multimedia

What amount of English material do students encounter via multimedia? To address this question, the participants were asked to indicate the number of hours per month they watch/listen to English material in four areas of media: television, radio, cassette tapes, and videotapes.

Response Frequencies of Hours-per-Month Categories: Table 3 shows response frequencies (and percentages of total responses, in parentheses) of listening to English material through four media: Television, radio, cassette tapes, and videotapes. The hours-per-month categories were: *0 (zero)*, *1-2 hours*, *3-5 hours*, *6-10 hours*, and *more than 10 hours*.

Table 3
Response Frequencies of Hours per Month Categories of English Listening Exposure Through Multimedia

Media Medium/ Hours per Month	Television	Radio	Cassette	Video
0	128 (36.7)	212 (62.9)	115 (33.8)	85 (24.9)
1-2	119 (34.1)	79 (23.4)	97 (28.5)	83 (24.3)
3-5	53 (15.2)	18 (5.3)	55 (16.2)	78 (22.8)
6-10	22 (6.3)	11 (3.3)	31 (9.1)	38 (10.6)
More than 10	27 (7.7)	17 (5.0)	42 (12.4)	58 (16.2)

Note: Tapes include English song cassettes as well as English instructional tapes (e.g., TOEIC, TOEFL, etc.).

Parentheses = Percentage of responses per situational category (Total of 359 responses).

Tabulation of percentages for a given medium do not total 100% due to missing data.

Television: The second column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies (and percentages of total responses, in parentheses) of viewing English material on television. Of 359 participants, 128 (36.7%) indicated that they did not watch English programs on television. In addition, 119 (34.1%) watched 1 to 2 hours, 53 (15.2%) viewed 3 to 5 hours, 22 (6.3%) watched 6 to 10 hours, and 27 (7.7%) viewed more than 10 hours of English programming on television per month.

Radio: The third column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies (and percentages of total responses, in parentheses) of listening to English programming on the radio. Of 359 participants, 212 (62.9%) responded that they did not listen to English programs on the radio. In addition, 79 (23.4%) listened to 1 to 2 hours, 18 (5.3%) listened to 3 to 5 hours, 11 (3.3%) listened to 6 to 10 hours, and 17 (5.0%) listened to more than 10 hours of English programs on the radio per month.

Cassette Tapes: The fourth column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies (and percentages of total responses, in parentheses) of listening to English material on a cassette tape. Of 359 participants, 115 (33.8%) said that they did not use cassette tapes to listen to English material. In addition, 97 (28.5%) listened to 1 to 2 hours, 55 (16.2%) listened to 3 to 5 hours, 31 (9.1%) listened to 6 to 10 hours, and 42 (12.4%) listened to more than 10 hours of English material on cassette tapes per month.

Videotapes: The fifth column of Table 3 shows the response frequencies (and percentages of total responses, in parentheses) of viewing English material on videotapes. Of 359 participants, 85 (24.9%) said that they did not watch English material on videotapes. In addition, 83 (24.3%) viewed 1 to 2 hours, 78 (22.8%) watched 3 to 5 hours, 38 (10.6%) viewed 6 to 10 hours, and 58 (16.2%) watched more than 10 hours of English material on videotapes per month.

Traveling to an English-speaking Country

Have Korean students had travel experiences in an English-speaking country, and if so for what duration? To address this question, the participants were asked to indicate the number of months they had sojourned to an English-speaking country, if any.

Table 4
Traveling Abroad to an English-speaking Country:
Response Frequencies and Mean

Travel/ Month(s)	English-speaking Country
0	296 (82.5)
1	27 (7.5)
2-12	25 (6.9)
13-120	11 (3.1)
mean	2.2 (s.d. = 11.4)

Note: Response frequencies of month(s) travel in an English-speaking country.
Final row contains mean months and standard deviation (*s.d.*).
Parentheses = Percentage of responses in each month(s) category.

Response Frequencies and Mean Time of Sojourn: The responses were categorized into the following groupings: *0 (zero) months*, *1 month*, *2-12 months*, and *13-120 months*. The response frequencies (and percentages of total responses, in parentheses) for each grouping are shown in Table 4. Of 359 respondents, 296 (82.5%) indicated that they have *never* traveled to an English-speaking country, 27 (7.5%) have at least 1 month, 25 (6.9%) have between 2 to 12 months, and 11 (3.1%) have between 13 to 120 months sojourning experience in an English-speaking country.

The mean number of months spent in an English-speaking country is 2.2 months. This mean can be misleading and should not be misconstrued as indicating that each participant has spent on average 2.2 months sojourning. Over 82 percent of the participants in this study have *never* traveled to an English-speaking country in their lives, and about 90 percent one month or less. Only 11, or about 3 percent, of the participants have spent over one year in an English-speaking country.

Motivation for Learning English

What are the motivational levels of students to learn English? And, are there any relationships between motivation and type of instruction they had received, or between motivation and English material they expose themselves to via multimedia? These questions are addressed below.

Table 5
Response Frequencies of Motivation for Learning English

Very Motivated	-	So-so	-	Not at all motivated
1	2	3	4	5
67	69	135	51	35

Response Frequencies: Table 5 shows the response frequencies of motivation for learning the English language. Of 357 participants who responded, 67 indicated that they were *very* motivated to learn the English language, while 69 said that they were between being *very* motivated and being *moderately* (*so-so*) motivated. Also, 135 participants indicated that they were *moderately* motivated to learn English. While 51 participants responded that they were between being *moderately* motivated and *not at all* motivated, 35 indicating being *not at all* motivated.

Table 6
Motivation Correlates: Institutional Instruction

	School		*Hakwon*		Tutor	
	Native	Non-Native	Native	Non-Native	Native	Non-Native
Motivation	.11*	.00	.13*	-.04	-.02	-.02

* *Significant at the p<.05 level*

Motivation Correlates - Instruction: Table 6 shows correlation data between motivation and type of instruction (academic institution, *hakwon*, and tutor, from native and non-native instructors). Two correlations reach a significance level of $p<.05$. They are between motivation and English instruction at school from a native English-speaking instructor ($r = .11$), and between motivation and English instruction at

a *hakwon* from a native English-speaking instructor ($r = .13$), suggesting a positive relationship between motivation and receiving English instruction from native English-speaking instructors.

Correlation results do not necessarily indicate causal relationships. That is, in this context, conclusions of what causes what cannot be drawn from correlation results. It can only be concluded that there is a relationship between the variables in question. Therefore, it may be that greater exposure to the English language, via native English-speaking instructors, may lead to higher motivation, or possibly those students who are highly motivated to begin with may seek out English instruction from a native English speaker. However, in this study, due to the large percentage of *zero-hours-of-instruction* responses for each of the instruction categories, the correlation results may be unstable. Future studies should ensure a normal distribution of hours of English listening and speaking instruction for each of the institutional categories to achieve statistically stable validity.

The correlations between motivation and the other types of instruction are insignificant, suggesting that there are no relationships between the motivational level of participants and these types of instruction given or sought.

Table 7
Motivation Correlates: Multimedia

	Multimedia			
	Television	**Radio**	**Cassette Tape**	**Videotape**
Motivation	.17 **	.05	.07	.03

** *Significant at the p<.01 level*

Motivation Correlates - Multimedia: Table 7 shows correlation data between motivation and avenues of multimedia the participants utilize to access English materials. All correlations are insignificant, except for that between motivation and viewing of English material on television ($r = .17$, $p<.01$), suggesting that participants who are highly motivated watch a greater amount of English material on television, or that watching English materials on television increases motivation.

Motivation Correlates - Sojourn: Due to the large number of participants who have never traveled to an English-speaking country (82.5%), producing a largely skewed distribution, the correlation result between motivation and sojourning has been excluded.

Discussion

Surprisingly, Korean university students have had very little English listening and speaking exposure throughout their lives, despite receiving six, or more, years of English language instruction. As shown in this study, the average Korean student has received little more than 80 total hours of English listening and speaking instruction from native English speakers, and slightly more than 130 hours of English listening and speaking instruction from non-native English speakers.[6] In total, Korean students have received approximately 210 hours of English listening and speaking instruction in their lifetime.[7]

When the 210 lifetime hours is divided into time devoted to reception (listening) and time devoted to production (speaking), it becomes clear that expectations of even basic production may be unreasonable. To clarify, let us assume an average class size of about 20 to 40 students in an English language class (not an unreasonable estimate for an average Korean classroom). Also, let us assume half the class time being utilized by the teacher to impart instruction (while students listen). The result is, the average student would be afforded about five to three hours of opportunity for production of English speech, on a one-on-one basis with English instructors.[8]

When the five to three hours are spread out over six years, the result is *less than one hour per year* of opportunity for production of English speech! Again, keeping in mind that these figures represent lifetime hours of opportunity for English production, they are extremely low. It would be unreasonable to expect anyone to develop the competence to communicate in a foreign (second) language, no matter how basic the level, with such little opportunity for practice in that foreign language.

Often times, as native English speakers, we forget and take for granted the countless hours of English language exposure we were afforded to be able to fluently communicate in English. Developmentally, young children require about a year, after birth, of English language exposure before being able to produce single words (Fromkin & Rodman, 1998). They then require another two years to be able to use sentences containing five to six words. Thereafter, another year is required to use sentences like adults, and not until they are five or six do they demonstrate a mastery of complex rules of grammar and meaning (Encyclopedia Britannica, 1999). Children in English-speaking countries acquire this ability in a setting where they are immersed in an English language environment.

Some assume, incorrectly, that surely after six years of English language instruction, Korean students should be capable of communicating orally in English at a basic level. The results of this study suggest otherwise. The bulk of English language instruction in primary, junior, and senior high schools in Korea, has been

geared towards the development of reading skills – and some writing in the form of reproducing text, penmanship, and spelling – not listening and speaking (as this study confirms).

So, what is the English language educator in Korea to do? The remainder of this paper will touch upon issues and theories pertaining to language acquisition, to aid English language educators in their endeavor to teach Korean students to communicate in English as well as suggest areas for further research and study.

Motivation

Gardner (1985) suggested four important factors that influence the likelihood of an individual successfully learning a second (foreign) language: intelligence, specific aptitude for language learning, motivation, and anxiety. The first two factors are inherent to the language learner and considered beyond the influence and control of the language educator. The latter two, on the other hand, involve personal and environmental factors that can be seen as being within the influence of the educator. Therefore, two of the challenges faced by educators are 1) To maintain and/or increase student motivation and 2) reduce the anxiety associated with learning another language.

Motivation has been found to be a crucial determinant of second language success (e.g., Brown, 1994; Gardner, 1979; 1984; Gardner & Lambert, 1959; 1972; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1995; Schumman, 1986). Therefore, an important question that should be raised is what factors are involved in influencing student motivation to learn the English language? One factor might be the type of English language exposure students have had. In this study, a positive relationship was found between motivation to learn English and learning the English language from native English-speaking instructors. That is, highly motivated students received/sought English language instruction from native English speakers.

There are a multitude of other factors that may play a role in influencing students' motivation to learn a foreign (second) language. For example, the role of culture, a period of silent reception prior to any attempt at production (in part, a factor pertaining to appropriate inputs), and/or self-efficacious beliefs of one's own abilities, as well as indirectly, the expectations of the teacher concerning their students' capabilities. Each of these factors could potentially affect a student's motivation to learn a foreign (second) language, and addressed herein.

Role of Culture

Second language acquisition theorists tend to agree that culture plays a role in language learning and many people have explored the characteristics of the relationship (e.g., Agar, 1994; Grosjean, 1982; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Brown

(1994) regards teaching a foreign language as teaching a culture: "A language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven such that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture" (p. 124). Indeed, he likens foreign language learning to the acquisition of a new identity.

Holmes and Brown (1977) suggests that becoming a successful foreign language learner involves more than just learning the linguistic rules of a language (i.e., the semantic, grammatical, syntatic rules - descriptive-structural linguistics), it also requires the acquisition of *sociolinguistic competence* - skills at using a language in a social context. As such, the foreign language learner is required to gain mastery of a new set of social norms, attitudes, and mannerisms, e.g., norms for appropriate conversational feedback (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Chen, 1993; Levine, Baxter, & McNulty, 1987). In some sense, the acquisition of a foreign language involves the language learner undergoing a socialization process - a process of acquiring knowledge, values, attitudes, and social skills associated with a language, in addition to the linguistic faculty with language, to become a competent member of, and integrated within, a language society (Reber, 1985).

In receiving English instruction from a native English speaker, the student is implicitly acculturated into the English language community by a competent and able member of that community. A native Korean-speaking English language instructor could aid in this acculturative process, but having been socialized within the Korean culture, it is only natural that their instructional effects (in teaching the culture) would be diminished. Students who have achieved a certain level of sociolinguistic competence in the English language would be better equipped to successfully navigate interpersonal interactions in English, leading to facilitated communication, which in turn could lead to increased motivation to learn the English language.[9]

Silent Period

Individuals encountering a new language experience a deluge of incoherent streams of auditory input. Unable to perceptually separate out meaningful sound segments, the bewildered individual would be confounded in associating meaning to the sounds they hear. Prior to entering university, most Korean students had received English language instruction in junior and senior high school, but mostly in the form of written text, accessed through the visual modality. Oral communication, specifically auditory reception, involves the auditory modality. There is probably some transference between the visual and auditory modalities, but not to any significant degree where mastery of a language via the visual modality would lead to simultaneous communicative competence via the auditory modality. In other words, being able to read a language does not necessarily lead to being able to aurally comprehend a language.

When neophytes to oral communication are unduly pressured into forced production of speech before developing the capacity to differentiate sound segments into meaningful words, they could be de-motivated and discouraged to continue learning a foreign language (especially when the individuals have attained a certain intellectual level, as is the case of Korean university students). Therefore, individuals require a period of time to become accustomed to the reception of a language. Furthermore, receptive abilities are thought to precede productive skills, i.e., listening comes before speaking. These are the basic assumptions underlying the concept of the silent period, aptly summed up by Nunan (1998) as "The belief that a second language is learned most effectively in the early stages if the pressure for production is taken off the learners." Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982) expresses the point most emphatically, claiming that students *need* a period of receiving language input through listening prior to producing a second language orally.[10]

The authors of this paper believe that students would benefit from programs that acknowledge the need for students to progress through this silent period and incorporate this into their curriculum accordingly. The exact amount and nature of English listening exposure required for an individual to pass through this silent period is uncertain. However, according to this study, university students with a very limited listening and speaking instruction during their six years of schooling in English classes are unlikely to have passed through the silent period. Thus, according to theory, their oral communicative abilities in English would not be very advanced. Therefore, pressuring students into premature language production may lead to adverse effects, such as de-motivation and despondency, if not outright rebellion.

Future research should investigate the factors associated with the passage through this silent period, such as quantity and quality of language input from listening.

Self-Efficacy: Internalizing Motivation

Often times educators take upon themselves the burden of regimenting a program of language learning. That is, the educator becomes the primary source and criteria for initiating, implementing, monitoring, and assessing language learning. These types of approaches may lead the learner to externalize motivation. Bandura (1997) believes that in order to facilitate intellectual growth beyond formal education, individuals must develop the capacity for self-directed learning, whereby the source of motivation (for language learning) is internalized and self-regulated. He argues that personal efficacy (self-efficacy) is a crucial determinant governing academic achievement. Independent investigators have provided research findings in support of Bandura's contentions (e.g., Collins, 1982; Schunk, 1989). In these studies, "children who had stronger belief in their efficacy were quicker to discard faulty

strategies, solved more problems ... chose to rework more of those [problems] they failed, and did so more accurately than children of equal ability who doubted their efficacy" (Bandura, 1997, pp. 214-215).

Bandura (1997) outlines four principle sources of information contributing to the construction of self-efficacy beliefs: enactive mastery of experiences, vicarious experiences that alter efficacy beliefs, verbal persuasion and allied types of social influences, and physiological and affective states. Each source of information will be examined in the context of effective language learning for beginners.

Enactive Mastery: Enactive mastery experiences serve as indicators of capacity and are the most influential sources of efficacy information (Bandura, 1997). Success and failures provide authentic evidence of whether one can muster whatever it takes to succeed. Successes that come easy lead to expectations of quick results and can easily bring about discouragement in the face of failures. Overcoming obstacles through perseverant effort builds a resilient sense of efficacy. Once individuals developed a strong sense of self-efficacy, they were found to persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks (Elder & Liker, 1982).

The goal of the educator is, therefore, to provide challenging opportunities to guide students through enactive mastery tasks. As suggested earlier, the task format for beginners should primarily be listening, and incorporate components that test for receptivity, such as transcription or dictation of short English passages. Transcription and dictation tasks provide opportunities to self-monitor progress of auditory discrimination. The role of the teacher is to make determination of the *appropriate* input level for the beginners and provide tasks and experiences that progressively challenge them, while guiding the beginners to self-monitor their progress by offering suggestions and strategies to self-regulate their progress.

Comparison of Experience with Others: The second source of information contributing to the construction of self-efficacy beliefs is vicarious experiences of comparison with attainments of others. That is, appraisals of individual capabilities are made in relation to the attainment of others. Most all educational institutions have adopted evaluative systems that appraise performance relatively. The grading structure allots academic standings in a proportionally preset manner. In other words, a fixed distribution limit of letter grades of A, B, C, D, and F are imposed for evaluative purposes. This type of grading system could potential lead to the externalization of motivation to learn a foreign language – i.e., studying English to get an A.

An alternative, and intriguing, form of grading was proposed by Finch and Vierra (1999), where Korean students perform self-evaluations and then *give themselves* a grade. They found through a sample study that students' self-evaluations of their performances were similar to those provided by the instructors. Rosenholtz & Simpson (1984) provides research support for the utility of this form of grading, where they

found that the students' self-appraisals of their capabilities were closely related to the teachers' judgments of them. Research is required to determine the validity and generalizability of Rosenholtz and Simpson's finding to the Korean context, to determine the feasibility of implementing such a radical change in student evaluation.

Such an evaluative program may prove to be beyond the capabilities of beginners however, because accurate assessment requires some awareness of the scope of linguistic knowledge to learn, and it is unlikely that beginners would possess such knowledge. However, it may be possible for beginners to perform self-evaluation within limited parameters set forth by the teachers. For example, memorizing a set of English vocabulary, and/or production of English words while prompted by visual aids.

Verbal Persuasion: The third source of information contributing to the construction of self-efficacy beliefs involves verbal persuasion and allied types of social influences that one possesses certain capabilities. Persuasory efficacy information is generally conveyed in the evaluative feedback given to individuals. Evaluative feedback targeting personal capacities were shown to enhance perceived efficacy. For example, children who have been periodically told that they are capable, and provided feedback that they have been working hard or that they need to work harder, were found to boost efficacy beliefs (Schunk, 1982; Schunk & Cox, 1986). In short, providing encouragement and praise regarding the individual's abilities increases motivation.

Not all forms of persuasory feedback, however, are effective. Excessive and repeated praise for mediocre performances may actually lower the recipients' judgment of their capabilities, because individuals come to realizations of their limited capabilities through peer comparisons. Therefore, persuasory feedback should be framed such that it reflects the reality of the individual's efforts and performance.

The role of the educator is to set challenging tasks and periodically provide honest feedback and encouragement to the students. For beginners, teachers could assign challenging tasks that gauge the students' listening ability then provide periodic feedback concerning their progress. Praise should be given when students have attained a set goal, and encouraged to try harder if they fall short, while providing possible strategies for self-directed corrective intervention. The quantity and quality of these types of feedback should be investigated in future research to determine the effects of differential feedback upon Korean student performance and motivation in listening and speaking. (For example, the effects of different types of corrective feedback, praise, and encouragement.)

Physiological and Affective States: The final source of information contributing to the construction of self-efficacy beliefs concerns physiological and affective states, from which people partly judge their capableness, strength, and vulnerability to

dysfunction. Bandura (1997) believes that "people rely partly on somatic information conveyed by physiological and emotional state" (p. 106) in judging their capabilities. Four forms of somatic information has been proposed: physical status, stress level, negative emotional proclivities, and misinterpretation of bodily status. Each can adversely affect self-efficacy appraisals. For example, experiencing excessive stress or confronting inimical emotions may debilitate performance, leading to a belief that one is incapable of *handling* the situation. The task for the educator is to anticipate, recognize, and intervene in situations that may lead to debilitating somatic reactions to lessen their negative impact. For those interested, the reader is asked to refer to Bandura (1997) for greater details.

Appropriate Input

The majority of Korean university students in the present study have had very little exposure to formal training in English listening and speaking, therefore, could safely be considered false/early/first-level beginners. As outlined above, some language education theorists believe that learners of a foreign language in the early stages should proceed through a silent period before they are expected to speak. That is, exposure to the language should consist primarily of listening activities. But, how much (quantity) and what types (quality) of input are *appropriate* for these beginners? In terms of quantity, too much input would be overwhelming, while too little not challenging enough. Either scenario could lead to a decrease in motivation.

Mueller (1967) estimated that students require approximately six months, 6-14 hours per day, of foreign language exposure to achieve proficiency in that language (amounting to about 1,000 to 1,500 *contact* hours), and this is dependent upon the ability of the students to absorb and digest the material presented to them. What types of language input contribute to accelerated attainment of communicative competence? Is the effectiveness of the quality of the language input stage dependent? (Do different types of English instruction have differential effects depending upon the developmental stage of the language learning process the learner has reached).[11] Future research should address these questions and others related to the quantity/quality of input issues involved in foreign language learning.

Teacher Expectations

Studies on the effect of teacher expectations of students in foreign language learning are not frequently discussed in the literature. Most teacher handbooks, however, tend to exhort the teacher *to know* their students. "To know" means to understand their level, interests, and needs in order to properly plan lessons and choose materials. Harmer (1991) claims that much of the teacher's work in the classroom concerns getting the level of challenge right. When curriculum and syllabus decisions are made upon myth and misunderstandings of prior English

listening and speaking exposure, more often than not, objectives fail to be achieved. Teachers either fly too fast ahead of students or drag too far behind. Students, in such circumstances, not only lose the opportunity to learn, but also may suffer a more grievous harm, namely, becoming discouraged and de-motivated. Understandably, educators frequently encounter classes with a mixture of students of differing language proficiency levels and are faced with the monumental task of developing lessons that cater to all levels. Such efforts are often ineffectual. The lessons are either too difficult for some or not challenging enough for others.

One student once expressed it such: "I no longer have the heart to study English." There is no greater harm that a teacher can do than to quash a student's passion to learn. The teacher's knowledge of the students leads to expectations about what will and won't work in the classroom. Based on these expectations, teachers make important decisions that affect the students' ability to acquire the target language. Unfortunately, however, because concrete evidence is not always available, teachers frequently rely on intuition, stereotypes, and faulty assumptions. The results of this study clearly show that the majority of students entering university are ill-prepared to meet the challenges of communicating orally in English. Teachers often overlook those students that are not yet capable of oral communication. In classes, a teacher can become so absorbed in implementing a lesson plan that they fail to monitor the progress of students that fall behind. Teachers often focus their attention and instruction towards those students who are able to *match* the teaching expectations of the instructor. These students are probably in the minority, and probably those that have had sufficient English listening and speaking exposure before entering university.

Conclusion

This study is an examination of the exposure of Korean students to English listening and speaking in three settings - instruction, multimedia, and travel experiences to English-speaking countries. Korean students in this study were found to have very low exposure to English listening and speaking, a finding probably consistent with most people's expectations. However, the degree to how little exposure students have had is surprising.

The implications of these findings should be a clear call for more listening and speaking activities in the English language classroom in Korea. Particularly, focus should be given to developing listening skills, especially for those beginning the journey of learning a foreign language, as the finding in this study suggests.

In this paper several areas for future research, related to foreign language learning have been suggested, with specific emphasis upon learner variables, such as motivation for learning a foreign language and self-efficacy. Also, the role of

culture, the silent period, appropriate input, and teachers' expectations were covered. All these areas deserve further investigation in future research.

Another possible area for future research might be to examine the effectiveness of Korean teachers in teaching the English language. It is thought that Korean teachers can easily utilize a variety of media, e.g., tapes, videos, computers, etc., to effectively teach the English language. If so, what materials should Korean teachers utilize to teach English, and what are the most effective manners for delivery of English instruction? What effects would Korean teachers have upon the motivation of the learners? Could native Korean teachers effectively teach the culture associated with the English language? These are but some of the many questions that must be addressed in future research.

This research is put forth as a beginning. A beginning that will stimulate further inquiry into the areas of foreign language learning in Korea. This study is by no means meant to be conclusive, for it has several shortcomings that should be rectified in future research. First, the participant samples for this study are from two institutions in Korea; therefore, further study is required to examine the generalizability of these findings to the population of Korean university students with broad sampling from other institutions in Korea. Also, longitudinal studies would be useful in examining historical trends in English language instruction in Korea.

Another limitation to this study relates to participant self-reports. The validity of the self-reports provided by the participants of this study should be supported with other investigations that utilize a variety of methodologies, e.g., archival, government, and teacher reports, thereby providing convergent validity to the results found here. In addition, other avenues for English language learning (listening and speaking, specifically) should be looked into, avenues other than those investigated here: institutions, media and travel. For example, learning and practicing the English language while with friends and acquaintances that speak the English language fluently, computer assisted learning, internet voice chatting, and others.

Endnotes

1 *Originally, data collected from the background information questionnaire was intended for use in the English pronunciation assessment testing study to investigate the relationship of English pronunciation proficiency with English listening and speaking exposure.*

2 *The student participants were recruited from universities that are considered mid-upper ranked among the universities in Seoul (not the institutional affiliations of the authors of this paper). The student participants were attending Introductory, Intermediate, and Advance English Conversation courses, and English Pronunciation and Listening Labs at the time this study was being conducted.*

3 *The selection of items in this questionnaire were based upon the authors' experiences and knowledge of the Korean English language learning context, and the exposure areas covered by the items were thought to encompass the major avenues for English listening and speaking exposure for Korean students at that time.*

4 *Elementary, Junior & Senior High School, and University*

5 *Hakwons are privately operated learning institutes offering extracurricular instruction.*

6 *Trimmed Sample: The average total lifetime hours of English instruction for the majority of students may be considerable less considering that a small minority of students have reported having many hours of instruction while the majority reported having none or very little. To clarify, an example may help. If nine students reported having no instruction while one reported having 1,000 hours of instruction, then the average would be 100 hours, suggesting that each of the 10 students have had 100 hours of instruction. The figure of 100 hours would be a distortion of actual reality.*

Statistically, certain data points, such as the 1000 hours of instruction given as example above, are outliers. That is, outliers are "unusual, atypical, data point[s] - one[s] that stands out from the rest of the data" (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991; p. 398). Therefore, a visual inspection of the data from this study suggests that the upper 10 percent of the data could be considered outliers, that is, these data points do not represent the typical student's exposure time to English language instruction, and are probably atypical of the average student in Korea. When the upper 10 percentage of the data for each situational category of instruction are trimmed (i.e., excluded from the calculation) and the averages recalculated, the total lifetime means were found to be 30.1 hours and 26.3 hours of English instruction from native English speaking instructors and non-native English speaking instructors, respectively. The resulting mean total-lifetime hours of English listening and speaking instruction was 56.4 hours, about one-quarter of the untrimmed mean.

7 *To put this figure into proper perspective, let us consider the number of days-of-instruction 210 hours of English instruction would represent. Assuming an average of seven hours of instruction (9 am to 4 pm - hours of instruction in North American schools), 210 hours would represent about thirty days. This is about a month of classroom time in school.*

8 *To calculate the number of hours of opportunity for English speech production, the 210 hours was divided by half (teacher instruction time) = 105 hours. The 105 hours were divided by 20 or 40 (average number of students in a class) = approximately 5 to 3 hours of lifetime opportunity for one-on-one production with the instructor, per student.*

9 *Also, Gardner (1985) hypothesized a relationship between student motivation to integrate with the target culture and success in second language learning. His distinction between integrative and instrumental motivation has been questioned in recent years (see for example Gibb, 1998) but the dispute primarily targets Gardner's terminology, not rejecting the relationship between culture and language learning. Brown (1994) mentions other studies that addressed culture shock, acculturation, and social distance in language learning. He includes the language-culture connection as one of his 12 main principles by which to teach language.*

10 *In recent years, some theorists have criticized the silent period concept, arguing that this period may be a result of incomprehensible language input or other factors (Gibbons, 1985). Nevertheless, the delay of speaking the second language is a phenomenon that is still recognized by instructional theorists, who stress the importance of prioritizing listening skills in the early stages of language learning (Nunan, 1998).*

11 Second language acquisition theorists have yet to agree upon the quantity and/or quality of language input that students should receive in order to attain communicative competence. Some debates centers around whether input should be modified or authentic. Lightbown and Spada (1993) observed that despite divergences amongst theorists, they tend to agree that access to modified input is essential for second language learning. Krashen (1982) regards comprehensible input, as meaning messages that are received and understood, as necessary, but prefers unmodified input. Long (1985) suggest that modified input does not mean simplifying texts, but that modification can occur during interaction. Regardless of these issues, most theorists agree with Brown (1994) that learning must be meaningful and that teachers should appeal to student interest, academic and career goals, and their present circumstances. Further, teachers should always attempt to anchor new topics in students' existing knowledge and avoid rote learning.

Therefore, language input must be more than isolated words and grammar forms, which Krashen (1982) distinguishes as outside language. Outside language input causes students to attend to form and study language as an object. Language thus becomes an abstract topic, impersonal, and separate from the individual. Contrasted to outside language input are approaches, such as task based learning (Nunan, 1993), that use inside language input. This input focuses learner attention on meaning. Language becomes personal, not an abstract object to be decoded. The bottom line to this input discussion is that exposure to listening and speaking is essential to communicate orally, according to input theory. For teachers to choose meaningful and comprehensible input, however, properly gauging student past exposure to listening and speaking in the target language is important. The results of this study have demonstrated that Korean university student have had very little English listening and speaking exposure in their lives. Educators should modify their teaching to reflect this reality.

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Appendix A

Background Questionnaire *Instruction: **Please circle the appropriate response(s) and/or fill in the blank(s).***

1. Sex: **Male / Female** 2. Age: _____ **years old.**

3. Have you ever received English listening or speaking instruction at school? **Yes / No**

a. **From a native English-speaking instructor.**
How many months? _____ . months.
How many hours per week? _____ hours.

b. **From a non-native English-speaking instructor.**
How many months? _____ months.
How many hours per week? _____ hours.

4. Have you ever received English listening or speaking instruction at a hakwon? **Yes / No**

a. **From a native English-speaking instructor.**
How many months? _____ months.
How many hours per week? _____ hours.

b. **From a non-native English-speaking instructor.**
How many months? _____ months.
How many hours per week? _____ hours.

5. Have you ever received English listening or speaking instruction from a private tutor? **Yes / No**

a. **From a native English-speaking instructor.**
How many months? _____ months.
How many hours per week? _____ hours.

b. **From a non-native English-speaking instructor.**
How many months? _____ months.
How many hours per week? _____ hours.

6. How often (estimated *hours per month*) **have you** listened to / watched **English ...**

	Never	1-2	3-5	6-10	More than 10
a. **TV**	1	2	3	4	5
b. **Radio**	1	2	3	4	5
c. **Tapes**	1	2	3	4	5
d. **Videos**	1	2	3	4	5

7. In your own *honest opinion*, how motivated **are you in learning English?**

Very motivated		So-so		Not at all motivated
1	2	3	4	5

8. Have you ever traveled **abroad to an English-speaking country? Yes / No.** How many months? _____ months.

Web-based Language Learning in Korea: A pedagogical critique

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ABSTRACT

Web-based language learning context shortcomings are discussed according to technical, systemic, and human problems. A statement of language learning curriculum is provided, followed by a pedagogical critique of web-based language learning contexts. In conclusion, web-based language learning possesses inherent pedagogical limitations, is unsuitable for many learning contexts, and requires ongoing research. Teachers and administrators alike are cautioned against inappropriate use of this technology.

Background

Computer assisted language learning (CALL) is being used in many English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms (Lamy, 1999) but is most often restricted in use to writing exercises (Ehsani and Knodt, 1998). Although many ESL teachers are still skeptical of using CALL (Warschauer, 1996), recent innovations in technology, especially associated with the Internet and its multimedia abilities, have made the decision more favorable (Collins and Berge, 1994; Glennan and Melmed, 1995; Brett, 1998, 2000), although the currently available speech functions are still largely inapplicable for language learning (Godwin-Jones, 2000). Many educators and government officials are convinced that a paradigm shift in education is occurring (US White House, 1997; Leu, 1999), and necessarily so, (Daugherty and Funke, 1998), because of a dramatic change in society, from one that is based on industry to one that is based on information and information technologies, or IT (Berge and Collins, 1998; KERI, 1998). As cited in Oppenheimer (1997), the Clinton Administration's Educational Technology Task Force paper concluded:

> More than any other single measure, computers and network technologies, properly implemented, offer the greatest potential to right what's wrong with our public schools.

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The President of Korea, Kim Dae Jung, envisioning these benefits, officially announced an IT initiative in Korean classrooms, with an estimated initial cost of $100 million USD:

> "[Because] the 21st century will hinge on knowledge and information[,] the government will make utmost efforts, hand in hand with Korean people to join the top 10 info-tech power nations in the new century," President Kim said. To that end, the government will install high-speed Internet networks in every primary, middle and high school while offering free-of-charge PCs to teachers and school rooms...[totaling 433,500 PCs in 10,351 schools] so that each school operates at least one PC room. In addition, the government will supply PCs to 236,000 school-teachers and 200,000 classrooms. *(Yang, 2000b)*

This vision, expressed in the Presidential Commission on Education Reform of 1984-1987 and supported by a second Commission in 1994-1998 (KERI, 1998), is realized in the Information Superhighway Project (ISP), previously known as the National Information Basic System (Murchison, 1996). ISP is a widely-publicized, federally-driven project for "wiring Korea to the internet" nationwide (Jeong and King, 1996). The Presidential Commission on Education Reform (1994-1998) was the catalyst in changing the role of computers in education from being viewed simply as a vocational subject to being included in the general educational curriculum, and sought to implement what was merely voiced by the first Commission. It is a comprehensive proposal for a policy of enhancing education through the use of computers and network technologies in publicly funded learning institutions (KERI, 1998). To aid with the integration of IT into education, the Commission established the Korea Multimedia Education Center, which has since been renamed to the Korea Education Reform Information, or KERI (Jung, 2000).

Introduction

Research questions should form the basis of proposed actions or interventions before implementation (Phillips, 2000) – in theory at least. In actual fact, research findings are scarce concerning web-based learning (US White House, 1997; Hara and Kling, 2000), and its effects on educational practice (Daugherty and Funke, 1998). For example, in current US educational practice, research in general is very scarce because of a lack of federal funding:

> Less than 0.1 percent of our nation's expenditures for elementary and secondary education in the same year were invested to determine which educational techniques actually work, and to find ways to improve them. *(US White House, 1997)*

Yet, the authors go on to say that the introduction of such technologies can continue despite the lack of this research. Additionally, Hara and Kling (2000) suggest that the vast majority of research that is being conducted and published tends to highlight only positive aspects of the use of network technology. They note that efforts to consolidate findings are made more difficult due the multi-disciplinary requirements of such a search. Making this search increasingly difficult is the apparent lack of a guiding research agenda, which would inform future empirical practice (Warschauer and Healey, 1998).

Korea has also introduced network technologies without much support from empirical findings. Although initial funding for Information Super-highway Project has been estimated to be in excess of $76.5 billion dollars, empirical research has, proportionately, very limited fund allocation (Murchison, 1996). There does not seem to be any corresponding provision for empirical research, as though the debate for using web-based technologies was already settled. For example, under the auspices of the Brain Korea 21 project, launched in 1999 to encourage research and develop high quality curricula using IT, and the Virtual Education Trial Project, such as the establishment of Korea Open University, Sookmyung Cyber Education Center, and Seoul National University Virtual Campus, universities have been competing with each to implement information technologies in order to qualify for much-needed funding: that is, the more IT, the better. However, participants in these programs do not receive initial funding from the government prior to IT implementation (Jung, 2000), which mitigates against the likelihood that a priori developmental research, being self-funded, would be conducted. These projects also do not have any substantial means for self-evaluation (Jung and Rha, 2000), which is not surprising since their objectives do not explicitly include research:

> The universities and companies participating in the Virtual University Trial Project have three principal objectives: reducing costs; differentiating themselves from other universities so that they attract more students ... and thus increase enrollments; and improving quality through increased interactivity.
>
> *(Jung and Rha, 2000)*

Network technologies are rapidly being introduced and even considered as suitable substitutes for classroom teachers in many language learning contexts (Jung and Rha, 2000), but substantiating evidence does not seem to be necessary. For instance, KERI (1998) cites the initial Commission report (1984-1987) as recommending "research on Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI) and its demonstration", as well as research into the "dysfunction of information technology." Yet, in its review of the later commission (1994-1998), it does not refer to any of this research in making its sweeping educational reform proposals. KERI's (1998) self-described objective concerning research – "reinforcement of research for the promotion of adapting

education to the information age" – echoes Hara and Kling's (2000) concern regarding one-sided research.

In the Korean academic community, the Ministry of Education has been able to implement these proposed initiatives without much protest. In the university setting, some have suggested a temporary limitation on "complete substitution" of the classroom with web-based learning (Kang, 1999).

In the US, educational policies have tended to serve administrative, political, and financial agendas, rather than pedagogical ones (Oppenheimer, 1997), due in part to the fact that classroom teachers have been shut out of the debate regarding educational reform in the US (Nissen, 2000). In Korea, a similar situation exists, with inconsistencies revealed between educational departments. KERI (1998) mentions that the information age is "a new social system with no centralized control", yet goes on to describe a procedure for education reform which is completely top-down:

> These policy proclamations reveal the government's will to enforce wide-ranging reforms in education in order to develop the human capital... Adapting education to the information age will succeed when teachers, students and parents ... commit themselves to this project along with the leading efforts of the Ministry of Education.

This is balanced by a statement KEDI (1998) makes in its 1998 annual newsletter, which calls for reform based on a grassroots movement and consensus.

> It was agreed that reform strategies need to be: founded on the needs and realities of individual schools; supported and championed by parents and the community as a whole ... It was stressed that education is a cooperative process involving both suppliers and consumers and that education reform will only succeed once broad social consensus is met and active understanding, collaboration, and participation has been guaranteed.

It does not, however, contain any details on the process by which this "consensus" will be obtained (i.e. "agreed" by whom? "consensus" obtained how?), and thus lingering concerns about "top-down" processes remain.

Rationale

Many language educators, following Vygotsky (as cited in Stacey, 1999), have recognized that a balance between independent student-use of instructional materials and support or scaffolding from the classroom teacher is essential. Many educators

insist on a supporting role for technology use between the teacher, the student and the target content (Hegelheimer and Chapelle, 2000). Gatton (1999), of the CALL software publishing company DynEd, supports the same position.

It is the position of this paper that decisions about the use of such technologies for language learning in Korea should be made at a slower pace, in line with ongoing research, for the purpose of enhancing student achievement and development in a supplemental, not substitutive, fashion. Although comprehensive works, like Jung (2000), represent significant efforts in summarizing the current status of web-based learning in Korea, they do not cover specialized language learning issues. Other summative works about web-based ESL learning in Asia, such as Levy (1999), Gatton (1999) and Smith and Salam (2000), do not present pedagogical undergirdings for their discussions. As well, their reviews, as well as Hara and Kling's (in press) case study, generally deal with technical and systemic problems. Thus, this paper marshals the findings and unanswered questions and concerns of educators, and applies them to the field of second language acquisition, as a catalyst for more pedagogically-oriented assessments and discussions of web-based language learning in Korea.

In an effort to balance the current disproportionate coverage of the issue, this paper will focus on those downside aspects of language learning through the use of network technologies, alternatively called in the literature "technology-enhanced learning" (Naidu, 1999); "internet-" or "web-based learning" (Hara and Kling, 2000). In Korea, researchers and the media have also referred to it as "cyber education" and "virtual learning" (Jung and Rha, 2000).

The paper will focus on a type of language learning defined here as (1) occurring in programs specifically designed for language instruction, as differentiated from a general learning environment or approach, as discussed in Naidu (1999); and (2), depending exclusively on internet / network technologies as the vehicle for providing language content and instruction for students (after Khan, 1997). The content may or may not be open and flexible in terms of student control or student-directed inquiry, depending as such on the program itself. CD-ROM programs and self-access / learning-at-a-distance language learning programs share some characteristics with their web-based counterparts, and on pedagogical issues where features overlap, relevant findings will be discussed.

First, a concise rationale for a language-training curriculum will be described. Second, the rationale will be used to critique an area of web-based language learning that has not been discussed or researched extensively in ELT literature: pedagogical issues concerning student-centered factors.

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The "wrong" solution

The generalized solutions offered for many of the problems associated with implementing network technologies for education have typically involved spending more money, supported perhaps by raising taxes (Sava, 1997); hoping that technology will continue to develop; and especially, increasing the training of teachers (Huh et al., 1996; KERI, 1998). As Cuban (1996) states, such solutions only frame the problem according to the viewpoint of the techno-reformers:

> To techno-reformers the answer is simple: Teachers lack the access, knowledge, and skills to use these machines properly. When teachers are thus blamed, solutions also become obvious: Provide teachers with sufficient computer hardware and software, technical assistance in using the machines, and better preparation programs. Technology-leaning policymakers, corporate leaders, and other influential non-educators, with their access to media, have framed both the problem and the solution. Teachers ... remain voiceless in setting the reform agenda.

It appears that much more research needs to be conducted on pedagogical questions about web-based language learning. Consistent with this approach, a brief rationale or curriculum for communication and language training will be presented next, which will inform the evaluation of a web-based context for language training. Issues which require urgent attention are presented after that, followed by recommendations for directing research inquiries.

Rationale for Foreign Language Training

The National Standards in Foreign Language Education is a on-going project coordinated by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), sponsored and endorsed by the US Department of Education, and actively supported by foreign language organizations throughout the country. Its purpose was to create standards for foreign language education, and define the goals that conceptualized them (ACTFL, 1999).

The Standards are based on philosophical or pedagogical assumptions that will be restated here. Generally, the Standards comprise a system that was designed to inform teaching of L2 languages. The system describes L2 as a communication network between people, their cultural knowledge and practice, and the concepts and ideas which bind them together. Culture is defined as the sum of those perspectives (meanings, attitudes, values, and ideas), practices (patterns of

social interactions), and products (books, tools, laws, games, etc.) that make a culture unique (ACTFL, 1999). Specifically, the goals should include the following:

1. Learners must acquire communication strategies for bridging communications gaps resulting from differences in language and culture.
2. Learners must have access to cultural experiences in a wide range of activities.
3. Learning requires active mental engagement to develop ability and individuality.
4. Learners must be given interesting topics and ideas to discuss and analyze
5. Learners should be able to connect the topics and ideas with language practice for useful purposes.
6. Learners should become able to identify their linguistic needs for communication tasks, combine it with what they already know, and apply it to new areas.
7. Learners should have access to a variety of materials, tools, and data sources.

Pedagogical Critique of Web-based Learning Contexts

As the learning standards were framed in terms of the student, the critique of the web-based language learning context will be structured in a similar way. The drawbacks of such a learning context could be generalized, for ease of clarification, into at least 3 categories: psychological, cognitive, and social. These categorizations are arbitrary, in the sense that problems are so closely related to each other, they could be classified as one or another. As well, the critiques are suggestive, rather than conclusive, due to the paucity of research. They are presented here to stimulate discussion and inject a sense of caution into the current trends of educational change, especially in the area of ESL.

Psychological Drawbacks

Motivation

One of the most commonly cited benefits of technological enhancement has been the increase in student motivation. Students are highly motivated to study computer-mediated topics, presumably because of the greater range of topics available to them (RAND, 1996), and the inherent allure of technology itself (Mann, 1999). However, the increase in motivation could be attributed to at least three other areas: the Hawthorne effect, novelty effects, and instructor effects.

First, Caudron (2000) suggests that motivation could be augmented just from the added attention of trainers or course innovations, such as the dramatic technological changes conducted at many schools cited in the RAND (1996) report, rather than factors related to the content of a program itself. Second, although many students may be attracted and motivated by the novelty of education based on the internet

(Daugherty and Funke, 1998), they may eventually lose interest as they become accustomed to such a learning context unless integrated within an instructor-led program (Corcoran, 1999), especially when learning a language (Levy 1999). Third, not controlling for the difference of instructional techniques between class context comparisons, such as the amount of student and teacher interactions, and student selection and attrition rates (Phillips et al, 2000), can lead to spurious claims of student improvements (Oppenheimer, 1997).

Thus, while the use of network technologies could attract many students by providing a wide range of topics to study, as suggested by Standards 2 and 4, access to information is simply not enough to keep them. Companies producing internet-led programs will have to rely on other mechanisms, rather than novelty of situation and technique, to keep their clients. In fact, research suggests that greater participation of students (and teachers!) with designing and implementing program or sites promotes the overall success of the program (Levy, 1999). This iterative approach enhances the quality of the program, especially in terms of its student-centered curriculum (Nouwens & Robinson, 1991).

While a few sites and programs may offer a variety of learning options, few if any language learning web-sites offer forums for student feedback or interaction which would inform instructional format (Smith and Salam, 2000; Levy, 1999). One reason for this is the sheer cost of continuously updating site content (Gatton, 2000), compared to classroom instructors, who can adapt with relative ease (Nouwens & Robinson, 1991). Students desire open-ended environments that allow them to influence, in a personally relevant way, the outcomes of their learning experiences (Collins and Berge, 1994; Hyun and Finch, 1997), and this may mitigate against the widespread use of the internet for language learning.

Attention

As students become habituated to the new web-based learning context, they may demonstrate later an inability to use traditional methods of learning, having grown dependent on the technology (Benson, 1996). As well, students may require ever-increasing amounts of stimulation from this environment in order to continue demonstrating a learning achievement curve, especially as the novelty effect wears off. For example, the RAND report cites several anecdotal studies which allege increased attention gains, but on closer inspection is limited to handicapped and special needs students (Schmitt & Slonaker, 1996a), the majority of whom are diagnosed with learning disabilities (US White House, 1997). The visual nature of learning via the Internet may appeal to these types of students because of their cognitive processing deficits, as the case in Appendix A, reported by Molendyk (personal communication, July 24, 2000) suggests. Thus, attentional gains from the use of network technologies may in fact be limited to a special needs group of students. As well, although attention does increase the likelihood of learning, its presence does not prove that learning actually has taken place (Sava, 1997).

The location of learning is also important for maintaining attention. The office and home do not permit quality learning experiences for many: "The desk-top is a rushed, interruption-plagued environment, not conducive to sustained, focused learning or reflection" (Zielinsky, 2000). Without broad-based organizational support at the office, learners will be expected to juggle training demands, the telephone, manager's requests, etc. At home, children and family concerns, as well as the lack of time available (at night and after work), and lack of supervision create unfavorable circumstances. In fact, such conditions may appeal to virtually one student profile: a young, single adult with time on her hands - not the busy manager or mother of two (Zielinsky, 2000).

Such realities explain why a majority of distance education students typically do not persist beyond the first course they take (Shale and Gomes, 1998). The classroom, on the other hand, offers a structured, calm environment, which is more conducive to a focused learning experience.

As Standard 5 suggests, motivation and attention are necessary factors to consider in designing an optimized learning environment. It increases opportunities to connect language practice for personally relevant use.

Cognitive Drawbacks

Another commonly cited advantage of an internet-led learning context is the achievement gain of students. Some administrators are even suggesting that student achievement is an unnecessary component of evaluation replaced by, for example, computer-related skills evaluation (Leu, 1999). In some cases, literacy is directly related to proficiency with a tool, rather than the ability to communicate, per se. With this mechanistic approach, the concept of literacy changes from one technological innovation to the next. Such a context, however, implies that language learning is a mere by-product of task completion. As mentioned previously, Standard 1 would suggest that language is necessarily the focus of study, while Standard 7 suggests that instructional tools have supportive roles, rather than being the primary focus.

Other findings suggest that success in self-access language learning environments is predicted by (1) an ability to self-direct language diagnosis; (2) prior experience with language training; and (3), an intermediate utility of L2 (Jones, 1998). These factors severely curtail the widespread applicability of internet-learning contexts. Self-diagnostic ability is generally required at most web-sites (Smith and Salam, 2000), yet the assumption that students possess this skill is questionable (Gatton, 1999; Levy 1999). Standards 5 and 6 suggest that such diagnosis is critical to the learning process. The instructor-led classroom, with the instructor engaged as the professional diagnostician, can give instant pertinent feedback on oral performance, as well as provide opportunities for peer monitoring and feedback.

Computer simulations necessarily reduce or flatten 3D realities onto a 2D screen. This kind of information is sequential, which relates more to the left hemisphere of the brain. Yet, it is the right hemisphere that is associated with creativity. Thus, it is not surprising to hear of more and more students resorting to "cut and paste" techniques in creating their (written) projects (Oppenheimer, 1997).

Many websites are geared to low-ability students with narrow ranges of skill levels (Levy 1999), in order to widen the marketability of their product (Gatton, 1999). Such restrictions do not challenge students in meaningful ways. As well, within this range, students are exposed to only the learning options created by the developer (Mena, 1993). As a result, they may come to see language as simply a discrete knowledge area (Schmitt and Slonaker, 1996b) rather than the complex, dynamic system espoused by the Standards. A few multi-media language programs that are trying to incorporate pedagogical principles into their design still provide little or no provision for teacher-customized content, and are based on the assumption that students will tend to work through the computer-based curriculum independently of what goes on in the classroom (Warschauer and Healey, 1998).

Standard 2 states that learning should be paired or associated with experience in authentic contexts. This approach enables longer information retention. Thus, though it would seem that the internet environment provides a wider range of information, thus fulfilling Standard 7, it cannot substitute for active engagement in real-life contexts, where unexpected circumstances arise (Oppenheimer, 1997). On the other hand, the instructor-led classroom can provide more opportunity for collaboration, where materials can be tailored more easily to students' needs, where students can physically interact with each other unencumbered by the sophistication of technology, and where students can influence more directly their own learning outcomes through negotiation with each other and the instructor.

Social Drawbacks

Collaboration

Harasim et al. (1995) and others (Collins and Berge, 1994; Warschauer and Healey, 1998; Stacey, 1999) recommend that collaboration is essential for success in distance education environments. Many times, unfortunately, internet self-access programs do not provide adequate means for social interaction for language learning because there is a lack of collaboration in a spoken, real-time fashion (Smith and Salam, 2000; Jung 2000). Some studies do show that successful learning can take place in a self-access context, such as Jones (1998). Interestingly, the broader context for this learning is in the language's country of use, among real people in daily use (Jones 1998). Anonymity is preferable in role-play discussions because students can display more aggressive negotiating and conflict resolution techniques (Freeman and Capper, 1999). However, such situations can decrease the amount

of responsibility and accountability which students demonstrate. On sites that do possess chat abilities, most show little if any interaction between students (Smith and Salam, 2000). This phenomena is mirrored in Korea, where students at the Korea National Open University do not use these services as communication tools (Jung, 2000). In general, Smith and Salam (2000) and Levy (1999) in their reviews concur that most web-sites for language learning do not even contain this learning option.

In current SLA pedagogy, language learning needs to occur as personal interaction between people (Benson, 1995), and the environment (Mann, 1999), and this idea is supported by the ACTFL Standards. Many internet environments depend entirely on a written medium, where context-related cues are used heavily, eliminating the need to describe items in detail. Thus, collaboration in a written medium is completely different than a spoken medium. Written language, on the other hand, cannot transfer these contextual characteristics (Chapman, 1986). As well, spoken language uses intonation to provide cohesion, where written language relies heavily on cohesive ties, through grammatical constructs like reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction.

> Researchers have uncovered huge differences between spoken and written discourse, particularly in terms of interactive/interpersonal aspects of language. Spoken language (usually) involves real-time deployment, awareness of kinetic, prosodic, and other extralingual features and a distinct grammar that more accurately reflects shared information, ellipsis and a greater amount of illocutions... But these are almost impossible to duplicate in cyberspace...
>
> *(Mike Guest, personal communication, April 28, 2000)*

Even future technical innovation, which would allow synchronous viewing ability, would only transfer facial features, but would not allow the transfer of features relating to the physical environment of the respective speakers. The idea here is that the primarily written text characteristic of current web-based language learning programs (Smith and Salam, 2000) is not an appropriate substitution for the interactivity provided in the instructor-led classroom (Collins and Berge,1994), and called for by Standards 1, emphasizing communication strategy, and Standard 6, stressing the value of discussion and synthesis with others.

The myth that reading and writing activities can proxy for collaborative oral practice could be a projection from events in Korean ESL history, where achievement is based on improving test scores rather than actual language proficiency (Hyun and Finch, 1997). The TOEIC is a test exclusively composed of reading and listening items, and yet it is frequently used to estimate general language proficiency, including oral ability, in a wide variety of business and academic contexts. Despite its inherent, obvious and critical problem of test validity, the continued adherence in

Korea to this testing mechanism perhaps foreshadowed the immediate embrace of the web-based language learning context.

Thus, programs have been developed in Korea which continue to be text-heavy, with little attention being given to speaking modes. For instance, when the Korea Herald awarded a Year 2000 Best Web Site Award to CampClick.com, the site was described in the following, "TOEIC-like" way, (note the lack of any reference to an interactive, interpersonal "speaking" function):

> [CampClick.com] runs 41 courses, each of which offers all the necessary contents for learning a foreign language – listening comprehension, reading comprehension, grammar and tests.
>
> *(CampClick.com, 2000)*

The other site mentioned in the article, Bacoom.com, refused outright the chance to be evaluated when asked by the writer, on the grounds of its recent development, despite its reception of the distinction of a Korea Herald Website 2000 award.

Another example is the web-based, French language learning program called "Voila-web", described by Yoon and Kwon (1998). While it utilizes many multi-media abilities to support its communication activities, including some listening exercises, all materials and communication activities upon inspection are reading/writing text-based. The authors suggest that future modifications to the program need to include a French spell-checker and a morphological analyzer. Significantly, they do not suggest a need to introduce any activities that could engage and evaluate the speaking abilities of language students.

Development of sociability

By spending more and more time in front of the computer screen, the message imparted to students may be that simulated environments are preferable to real-time contact and experience (Oppenheimer, 1997). Coupled with the potential of growing dependency on technology to simulate experience, Cuban (1996) suggests that internet environments may encourage anti-social students who prefer isolation to real-time contact, rather than the collaborative behavior claimed by tech-boosters. The anonymity that an internet context can provide (Freeman & Capper, 1999), and the distance between learners that the context naturally implies, may decrease the use of normal social inhibitions against demeaning language, and the willingness to subscribe or otherwise be associated with ideas that are normally considered anti-social, as suggested by the cases in Appendix B ("Anonymity and anti-social behavior: Case studies in web-based language learning environments"). Rather than supporting communicative strategies in collaborative and mutually-experienced contexts, as Standard 1 implies, internet contexts may more often encourage isolation and antipathy.

Discussion and Conclusions

This paper has demonstrated that there are many potential psycho-social factors that can debilitate wholesale application of network technologies to the language learning classroom. Top-down administration of the procedure, which has occurred in the US and is occurring in Korea, will inevitably create problems. Such realities of the network learning context debunk the myth of unfounded expectations, and argue against "net-speed" full-scale implementation, especially with young language learners. As has been called for in the literature many times elsewhere, teachers and students alike need to share in developing and maintaining a vision for any proposed changes in education, such as the use of network technology. The comprehensive examination of web-based learning in Korea conducted by Jung (2000) is certainly a giant step in the right direction. It is unfortunate that this work appears several years after educational polices have been set in motion, it seems to be the only such work of its kind in Korea, and its focus is too general to specifically inform the practices of language education. Several policies are suggested here:

- Launch a national task force to determine national standards for foreign language proficiency and literacy, in order to inform curriculum design of language programs nationwide. The work of ACTFL could be helpful here.
- Eradicate the present system of testing for language proficiency through the use of tools that gauge primarily grammar knowledge. This should encourage the development of web-based language learning programs focused on proficiency as well as literacy, and based on communicative models.
- Solicit unmediated input from classroom level teachers through public forums, such as locally organized town hall meetings, seminars and workshops to air out teachers' concerns, and nationwide surveys to solicit teacher input.
- Provide funding for web-based learning research without tying it to prior trial project commitment or participation in an effort to produce bipartisan empirical findings.
- Refer to research findings when planning and announcing educational policies, in order to mitigate against an impression of ad hoc rationalization.
- Avoid implementation of web-based learning environments in primary levels of education, unless and until conclusive, positive empirical findings at tertiary levels become available.

As time goes on, many of the technical problems associated with internet usage will probably be resolved. Thus, the long-standing concerns of web-based language learning are pedagogical: what is the outcome of an internet language

learning context, not simply in financial terms, such as return on investment, but also in "whole" person terms: psychologically, mentally, and socially. This demands rigorous and ongoing joint research by conscientious stakeholders, both from the development side, and also on the administration side, focused on these areas:

- review studies which attempt to operationally-define a web-based notion of "motivation" and "achievement", so that the consolidation of findings called for by Jung (2000) may be carried out;
- social studies to analyse differences between face-to-face and web-mediated communication modes, such as the effects of anonymity, perceived distance, and contextual cues;
- longitudinal studies aimed at evaluating (1) long-term outcomes for student achievement in web-based language learning environments, and (2) long-term student attitudes and commitments to a web-based language learning environment, especially in terms of "attention";
- longitudinal studies which seek to compare contributions made by "traditional" curriculums against IT-based curriculums for personal development (after the US White House, 1997).

Some suggest that experimentation of technology in the language classroom is beneficial. If the experiment serves a purpose, and the subjects of the experiment are protected, then such an approach is justified. However, given the potential and real pedagogical difficulties, the lack of teacher training, and the financial cost of implementation, such an approach becomes questionable.

Specifically, the success of future internet applications for language education should depend on established pedagogical principles: the range of collaboration the programs encourage, the support they provide, and a clear recognition by administrators of what the internet cannot do – substitute for real interpersonal contact and natural experience. Technology should not be the focus of language learning as a new literacy per se. Instead, communicative literacy, above and beyond the medium used, is the proper target for study and acquisition. This paper would argue that the nature of literacy has not changed. Technology has merely altered and combined the means by which people communicate.

The issue of internet usage for language education will probably not yield simple "good" or "bad" assessments. Research has shown that network technology is more suitable for education in some contexts, but severely limited in others. Some language learners will find the environment and practice less effective than others, and some instructors will find it less conducive to their curriculum goals than others. Even the tech-boosters admit as much:

> Different approaches may prove optimal in different subject areas, at different grade and ability levels, with different sorts of teachers, and for students with different needs, interests, backgrounds, current knowledge, and learning styles.
>
> *(US White House, 1997)*

A national commitment to the development of individuals must not be sacrificed to achieve national competitiveness. In the final analysis, the equality of individual choice needs to be protected and valued at all levels of society: at the workplace, on the playground, at home, and in the Blue House. In an educational paradigm that values individual choice and responsibility, teachers and students alike should still be able to choose from an extensive menu of learning and teaching options in a wide variety of contexts. Appropriate and supplemental network technology usage is but one of many solutions available in language learning contexts.

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Appendix A

Attentional Deficits: Case summary of a special needs student

AB underwent a pyscho-educational assessment supervised by a registered psychologist a couple of months ago as his parents noticed that his grades were going down from 80's to 60's. The results suggested that AB has a processing problem. This means that his brain is only capable of handling so much auditory information and then it shuts down to absorb and then "turns on again" as it were, for more auditory information. In a classroom where a teacher talks for 30 minutes, AB might only pick up 70 percent of the material.

AB also has a lower focus ability as a result. This could mean that he is more inclined to use those things that give instant gratification, like computer games that could easily become habit forming. He is considered bright and can do well in the academically focused schools if he is given the written material from which the teacher teaches or has a selected scribe to take the notes.

The problem is classified as a learning disability, and it tends to show up in the high school years where there is less visual and more auditory learning. Students like AB, who were not diagnosed, tended to fail continuously and drop out of high school, suffered from low self-esteem and depression throughout their lives, making it very difficult for these students ever to attempt to learn anything again, even as adults.

Susan Molendyk (Personal communication, July 24, 2000)

Appendix B

Anonymity and anti-social behavior: Case summaries in web-based language learning environments

Spain: European Union School Project

J.T., a language teacher, reports that he set up an e-mail project with two other schools in Portugal and Italy as part of a wider Comenius European Union School Project on environmental education. His students opened their e-mail accounts about three weeks ago. One day, he received an extremely offensive message from an account opened under the name of one of his students. The student concerned denies having sent that shocking piece of abuse. Due to the nature of the email system, anyone who knew the address of the project account could have opened an account under the student's name and sent the message. Thus, J.T. couldn't do anything to identify the abuser.

On reflection, JT became upset and decided that he would stop the project until the abuser was found or gave himself up. He also decided to make this situation publicly known so that the students would understand that this kind of behavior would not be tolerated.

J.T. [Name withheld to protect anonymity. Personal communication, November 8, 2000. Edited for length and content]

Brazil:

V.A. reports that her high school students have access to school computers for creating email accounts. One of her students created an account at YAHOO and decided to create another account at home to send a very abusive message with x-rated pictures. V.A. told this student to stop and seek counseling. The student was informed that further abuse would result in disclosure. The student responded with an e-mail containing a "laughing" animation file and a statement "you will never be able to find out my identity." V.A. believes that the student's intentional message was: "you may think you know about how to use the Internet, but I am younger, so I know much more than you or my parents."

In contrast with the J.T. above, V.A. was able to conduct a search for the abuser through the Internet Protocol (IP) of the sender, which is located in the properties of the message. A trace of the IP disclosed the provider – a residential address. The network coordinator assisted by comparing all the e-mail addresses of

the students' parents, and this produced a shortlist of 3 possibilities. One was a very well behaved girl and the others were boys. The first boy was contacted, and was told that V.A. had received abusive messages via his provider. He was asked if he was responsible, and upon his ensuing denial, was informed that possible litigation would occur in order to get the provider to reveal the identity of the user of that IP at that specific time. He then admitted his guilt and started to cry.

V.A. and her colleagues have decided to work with the student groups concerning the issue of anonymity – "having the power to hurt people if they can't find out who you are." This fact raised a lot of questions in V.A.'s classes related to the use of the Internet, especially with the younger students. V.A. suggests that teachers should use the SURFS Well website (Disney) with their students. She believes that this problem generally starts at home, but if the parents do not cooperate with the teachers, very little can be done.

V.A. [Name withheld to protect anonymity. Personal communication, November 10, 2000. Edited for length and content]

A Study of Goal Setting for Language Acquisition in the ESL Classroom

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Abstract

The study explored the effectiveness of setting language skills as goals for language acquisition in the ESL classroom. The sample was 220 undergraduate students from Honam University. The students were divided into two groups: goal setters and nongoal setters. The goal setters used a goal setting instrument: a Language Tree. The study found that the goal setters had more motivation toward learning English; greater concentration on the tasks to be learned; and performed language skills more confidently with greater linguistic complexity. Test results showed that the goal setters outperformed the nongoal setters by a ratio of 3 to 1.

Introduction

Teachers around the world constantly ponder methods to motivate their students. There seems to be about ten percent of the students in every class who are apathetic, distracted, or uninterested in learning. Having reflected upon this problem, I recalled using a Language Tree as a learning incentive in an elementary school class about twenty-five years ago. I remembered all those bright, eager young faces striving to win a sticker to fill out the fruit on their trees. Motivation was very high. This classroom-centered study used a similar instrument in an ESL classroom at the university level. The purpose of the Tree was to increase student motivation toward learning English language skills by introducing the element of goal setting.

Design of the Study

The study was designed to measure the effect of goal setting on language acquisition. For this paper, "acquisition" is defined as an intuitive, mental assimilation of a second language which is characterized by spontaneity, creativity in producing new forms, and greater complexity in language structures; versus conscious language learning, such as memorization, which is characterized by repetition of

expressions, rules, and parroting (see Brown, 1994; Krashen, 1982). The class was a required English conversation class. The population selected for the study consisted of 220 undergraduate students from coeducational, English conversation classes at Honam University in Kwangju, Korea. Honam University is a mid-level, private university specializing in Information Technology. There were 194 freshmen, 3 sophomores, 14 juniors, and 9 seniors in the classes. The population was drawn from three different departments: Construction and Civil Engineering, Electronics, and Information and Communication. The students were randomly divided within their fields of study into two groups: goal setters and nongoal setters. For example, the Department of Electronics was composed of two classes, so one class employed goal setting while the other did not.

Instrumentation

This researcher/ practitioner constructed a Language Tree. This learning aid consisted of a line drawing of a tree, complete with a trunk, branches, and an outline of leaves. The fruit of the tree, hanging from the branches, represented written language skills from the textbook, for example: Introduce Someone; Describe your Daily Schedule; One, Some, Any; the Past Tense. See Figure 1.

Figure 1:
The Learning Tree

There were 50 language skills on the tree, arranged chapter by chapter directly from the textbook. These language skills became the learning tasks for the students to study in class and as homework. Each student received a copy of the Tree, which they glued into their textbook. The homework assignments and classroom exercises were designed to develop proficiency in each of the skills. As the class progressed, the teacher would sit with each student and converse on a topic related to a skill introduced in a previous class. If the student could use the skill easily at an

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intermediate or higher level based on the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (Brown, 1994), equivalent to a test grade of A or B, the teacher would stamp a red apple at the appropriate place on the tree confirming that the skill had been mastered. The aim of the class was to learn all of the skills over the course of the semester. Therefore, proficiency in using the 50 language skills was the goal of the class. As the teacher talked to the students to evaluate them on their skills, valuable feedback was provided to the teacher as to the effectiveness of the lessons and class activities, which enabled the teacher to adjust the lessons and activities throughout the semester.

Data Analysis

All students in the study were taught by the same teacher using Interactive methodology (Brown, 1994). The textbook for the course was *New Interchange: English for international communication*, *Students Book 1A* (Richards, 1997). All students studied the same material during the semester. Classes and tests were identical for both the goal setters and the nongoal setters including the activities and teacher one-on-ones. Tests were as follows: three verbal quizzes scored using ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (Brown, 1994, p.100-103), and discrete-point, written midterm and final exams on the material from the text. The test scores measured proficiency in English language usage, and the results of the goal setters and the nongoal setters were compared.

Limitations

The study was limited to a small sample population of predominantly freshmen students from three departments at Honam University during one semester of study.

There was no consideration for Learning Preferences. Blackerby (1996) found that some students are motivated by rewards, while others are motivated away from pain. The Language Tree represents a reward system. Reward motivated students would accept the use of the Tree, while students motivated away from pain would avoid the use of the Tree.

Motivation Defined

The literature is replete with research on the impact of motivation on second language learning. Only research specific to the interactive method of teaching will be discussed in this section.

A definition of motivation from Brown (1994, p.34):

> Motivation is the extent to which you make choices about (a) goals to pursue and (b) the effort you will devote to that pursuit.

For the Interactive method, motivation is either intrinsic or extrinsic. Extrinsic motivation includes rewards, such as a prize, or candy, as well as competition, dependence, and the expectations of others. Intrinsic motivation includes autonomy, cooperation, encouragement, and creativity. There are many variables that influence motivation. Gardner (Bowen, Madsen, Hilferty, 1985, p.60) suggested that "motivational variables are more important even than intelligence and language aptitude," while Meece and Schunk (1992, p. 150) found numerous motivational influences in the classroom for learning academic tasks ranging from student perceptions, health, feedback, and peer support. However, these myriad motivational variables were not taken into account in this study.

Clearly, the Language Tree is an extrinsic instrument used to motivate the students. However, this researcher also sees the Tree as a *bridging* device that encourages learning by initiating action in the student, of which study is a first step. The next step depends on the intrinsic motivation of the student to learn. Therefore the Tree has some characteristics of and impact on both motivational factors.

In producing intrinsic motivation, the Tree satisfied several requirements for intrinsically motivating techniques (Brown, 1994; Reeve, 1996).

- It is relevant to the student.
- There is flexibility in the assignment due dates.
- Students have a clearer understanding of the tasks to be learned.
- It fosters cooperative learning.
- Students have choices about using the technique.
- Students receive feedback from the teacher on their performance.
- Students can learn at their own pace.

Another intrinsic motivational profile from Raffini (1995); Brophy (1997); Stipek (1997).

- The material is challenging, supportive, meaningful.
- The instrument is goal setting.
- The participants are rewarded.
- Game like.
- Students are allowed to create the end result.
- Encourages students to get help.
- Attributes success to effort; failure to low effort.

The Language Tree inspired goal setting and supported the learning efforts of the student. It was meaningful in the cooperative classroom, which included content and task-based learning activities. Most students appreciated and remembered using a Tree in elementary school, so the response of the students to the Tree was fun and positive. Lastly, the students could create individualized language for the language skills listed on the Tree.

Using the Tree

The goal setting students had three reactions to the Tree: (1) seeing it as a useful tool, (2) considering it as an assignment, (3) fearing it as a difficult task. These reactions influenced how the students used the Tree. The students, who thought of the Tree as a useful tool or as an assignment to be completed, used it as a guide for specific study to do homework and to prepare for classes and tests. The students who feared the Tree avoided using it.

The teacher would either evaluate the students individually or in a small group. The teacher would prompt the students to produce English conversation using the skills highlighted on the Language Tree. If the response were acceptable, the teacher would stamp that skill as complete on the Tree and provide positive and encouraging feedback to the student on the quality of the response. This selective treatment of error correction follows Gardner's research on feedback and self-esteem (Bowen, Madsen, Hilferty, 1985). Stamping the Tree was intrinsically motivating as it enhanced the student's self-esteem, self-actualization, self-knowledge, strength, acceptance, and respect. It was also extrinsically motivating as it provided praise, reward, and recognition of achievement. This evaluation process would evoke competition, cooperation, or recognition seeking.

The use of the Tree was flexible because it was not graded. So the students became very adaptive and creative in developing strategies to successfully complete their Trees. Strategies included group, cooperative practice, grouping by subject, conversations which included several elements of the Tree; and team conversations. The students did not have a deadline to complete the Tree or its components. Some students lagged behind by as much as three weeks before completing their tasks. The example set by the faster learners provided great encouragement. Additionally, there was a difference between two subgroups of student goal setters: freshmen/ sophomores and juniors/ seniors. The latter group was more organized in using the Tree and following its guidelines. The Tree was definitely an empowering instrument for them as defined by Cooper (2000). These students would practice the language skills as a group in a cooperative effort using self-evaluation by the group before presenting themselves to the teacher for evaluation as recommended by Teaching Resources (1993).

TABLE 1
Study Results

Grade	Goal Setters	Nongoal Setters
Test Results of Freshmen and Sophomores		
A	48%	15%
B	30%	30%
C	16%	32%
D	4%	17%
F	2%	6%
TOTAL %	100%	100%
Test Results of Juniors and Seniors		
	Goal Setters	Nongoal Setters
A	12	0
B	4	4
C	0	3
D	0	0
F	0	0
TOTAL STUDENTS	16	7

Note: The teacher would also evaluate the nongoal setting group in the same way, but without the use of the Tree.

Many students were motivated to use the Tree as a measure of their language proficiency because it provided them with feedback about their progress and level of ability in the skills being studied. Overall, the goal setters outperformed the nongoal setters in ability, attitude, preparedness, and motivation. As indicated in Table 1, those students who received a final grade of A or B used the Tree for its intended purpose and had 40 to 50 stamps on their Trees by the end of the semester. They would practice in class, search the textbook for examples, and seek out the teacher to confirm their proficiency in the skill and to receive a stamp for that skill. The students who were in the goal setting group, but received a grade of C, were hesitant or fearful about using the Tree and completed few skills; in other words, they had few stamps on their Trees. The failures simply did not utilize the Tree at all and received a grade of either D or F on their tests. Therefore, the number of stamps on the Tree correlated with test scores. Interestingly, the goal setters had very few absences from class during the semester compared with the nongoal setters, who had seven times more absences by group. Finally, the only factor that differed between the students in the goal and nongoal setting group was the use of the Tree.

Characteristics of the Learners

Characteristics of the Goal Setters

- confident, focused, relaxed
- used a cooperative strategy
- felt in control and empowered
- took personal responsibility for learning
- sought help
- asked for feedback on before and after results for competence level
- the English had greater linguistic complexity.

Characteristics of the Nongoal Setters

- not confident
- uncertain about study items
- individual effort
- did not seek help
- became lost, left behind, or gave up
- did not take personal responsibility for learning
- the English was simple with many learned phrases.

Of interest were the final grades of the nongoal setters. This teacher has taught in Korea for five years and talked with many colleagues over the years about the proficiency level of students and grade scores and ranges. The test scores of the nongoal setters were compared to grades given in previous classes in which a Language Tree had not been used. Those grades fell within a grade range consistent with previous classes of equal ability.

Serendipitous Observations

The Language Tree had some unexpected influences that I call *Tree Effects*. There were three overt, positive influences on the performance of the goal setting students. First, the Tree produced usage repetition of the different elements on the Tree during classroom exercises and teacher one-on-ones. For example, when asked an information question about where they ate lunch, the students would answer by

combining prepositions of place with a time expression: "I eat lunch in the school cafeteria at 1 o'clock." This repetition reinforced the individual skills and created more complex sentences. In contrast, the nongoal setters would answer questions using only the specific skill being studied in class that week. Second, Blackerby (1996) observed that most of the mediocre students simply used bad learning techniques and did not know how to study to achieve excellent grades. Many teachers assume that students come to them with good learning skills. The Tree provided a visual guide to the course. As a visual tool, the Tree listed clearly the course objectives for the students to see and refer. Therefore, they had a visual list of skills to study and learn. Meece and Schunk (1992) found that student perceptions of the material to be learned were often confused and incorrect. The goal setters were able to focus their study effort on specific skills, while the nongoal setters studied the course objectives and insignificant material in spite of guidance from the teacher. The teacher observed that when told to study specific items in the textbook, which was also written on the marker board with page numbers, many of the nongoal students did not write the information down in their notebooks. Third, the Tree exposed the students to the success principle of goal setting. In previous classes, the "A" students ranged from 10% to 30% of a particular class of the same level of ability. The goal setters, who received a grade of "A" using the Language Tree, represented 48% of the students. Therefore, the Language Tree helped some students to attain a higher grade through goal setting.

Conclusion

The Language Tree significantly enhanced language acquisition and motivated the students to succeed. Although some students never clearly understood the exact purpose of the Tree, most of the students used the Tree to empower themselves and learn the skills of the course at their own pace using their own learning strategy. This was a difficult group to teach because the course was a required class taught to predominantly freshman students with non-English majors. However, the students who succeeded in the course understood that there was a practical reason for using the Tree and received very good results on their tests through goal setting. There is little doubt that the visual list of skills to study on the Tree was of great benefit in providing focus on the course objectives. This list enabled the students to focus on the exact language skills to be learned. However, the nongoal setters seemed to be lost and confused even though the teacher wrote the skills to be tested on the marker board. Many did not copy this information into their notebooks. Test scores, attitudes, and motivation were improved through the use of the Tree. However, as predicted by behavioral psychology, the extrinsic character of the Tree extinguished at the end of the semester as the Tree lost some of its motivational power. Perhaps the distraction of the school festival or the end of the semester contributed to the lapse in student motivation. Further research is

needed to study the effect of motivational instruments on other populations, regions, and class subjects such as writing or reading. Perhaps the Tree should only be used for half of the semester, or combined with other motivational techniques.

This teacher was excited about the attitudes, motivation, and test results of the students this semester. The classes were positive and fun to teach using the Tree. It was a delight to teach students an empowering technique that enhanced their self-esteem and confidence, which resulted in excellent test scores. It was satisfying to be pursued by students who wanted to be checked off on a skill that they had mastered after class or at the office. Next semester I will use several motivational techniques with all of my students to complement the Language Tree. Consider using a Language Tree in your classes to motivate your students to succeed in learning English.

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The Korea TESOL Journal welcomes evaluative reviews of publications relevant to the field of TESOL. In addition to professional books, classroom texts and reference materials, these include non-print materials such as computer software and audio, video and testing materials.

Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers

Anne Burns.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999.
Pp. xi + 259. (ISBN 0-521-63895 Paperback)

Reviewed by Jane Hoelker

"My experience of action research is that it is difficult to grasp or explain the concept until one is in the process of doing it. It is in the doing that it starts to make sense and become clear" (p. 20). Anne Burns, renowned teacher educator and researcher with the Australian Adult Migration English Program (AMEP), quotes Jane Hamilton, a colleague in the beginning of her recent publication, *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers*. Indeed, Burns takes her direction from this quote, aims to bring her readers into the very process of action research through case studies of projects she has supervised and, thus, demystify what action research is, as well as how and why it is conducted.

Burns succeeds in her goal, and her work nicely complements two excellent and recent (1998) publications on action research, *Doing Teacher Research: From Inquiry to Understanding* by Donald Freeman and *Action Research for Language Teachers* by Michael Wallace. Burns contends that it is primarily through collaborative action research projects (conceived of, designed, and realized in a professional group setting) that a more complete professional development for the individual teacher researcher can be achieved. Furthermore, she claims that through collaborative action research (AR) projects, a greater influence can be wielded by the group conducting the projects to introduce change into those educational bureaucracies, institutional or government, that are not so responsive to teacher requests nor student needs that emerge over time. Finally, she urges teacher researchers to incorporate AR into the classroom in order to avoid further burdening teachers, many of whom struggle with schedule constraints.

Neither Freeman nor Wallace promote collaborative AR projects over individualized ones. Wallace leads the reader carefully through a clear, albeit occasionally dry, step by step checklist or outline of what AR is and how to conduct it. Freeman focuses more on the philosophical background of AR, as well as the political implications of teachers taking control of defining the knowledge base of their chosen profession. Wallace's style and rhetoric lean toward the negative, as in his description of how to turn the problems we face into positive, rather than negative, experiences, or how to turn our need for self-improvement into a challenging, rather than a threatening, process. Or he explains how informal reflection or mentally

rehearsing certain experiences can result in intensifying unpleasant emotions without discovering a resolution to the problem. Those new to AR might be discouraged by the tone in the Wallace book. Freeman explains how educators can self-empower by moving teaching from being a field of study to an independent discipline, based on an organized inquiry into the experience of teaching. Freeman's future orientation inspires the reader.

Burns provides a clear outline of what AR is, how to do it, and why, similar to that offered by Wallace, but the outline is clarified and enlivened by the abundant examples of AR projects she has supervised in her capacity as a teacher educator with AMEP. Furthermore, these same examples of peers accomplishing AR projects encourage or even inspire teachers considering such a project. Burns' practical experiences provide a scaffold between the theoretical outline of Wallace's work and the philosophical and even occasionally abstract approach of Freeman's book.

Burns is thorough in her definition of AR and in contrasting it with the scientific approach. She explains that while AR is refreshingly concerned with the classroom as it really is, with its messiness and its complexity, the scientific approach aims for objectivity and control. In the late 19th century the natural and physical sciences became the appropriate model for investigating the world. According to the scientific method, hypotheses are preconceived and based on previous evidence. Traditional research works with a limited number of variables and seeks to discover the cause and effect relationship. Both internal and external reliability must be guaranteed, so that a second or third researcher could duplicate the results using the same analysis. The clarity and rigor of procedures and studies guarantee quantitative research.

However, interest in subjective realities has been growing recently, and quantitative research results cannot probe the relative meanings and interpretations of events given by participants. The diversity of modern life requires a skill in examining the multiplicity of socially constructed meanings. Thus, the researcher does not attempt to control variables because these are the source of new interpretations and meanings. Validity is ensured through multiple data sources, and AR focuses on the processes as well as the outcomes of research. Thus, the data collection of an AR project is *rich* and the descriptions *thick*. Both the data sources and the data collection methods can be triangulated, thus further ensuring validity. The focus is local and the issues are practical and concrete, or of immediate concern to a particular social group. Burns clearly distinguishes between intuitive introspection that many classroom teachers have relied on to make decisions and the disciplined, systematic study of reflective teaching, or action research, that she promotes in her book.

Burns' account of the AR movement in Chapter 2 explains that AR is not a recent research development but a returning one. The AR movement began in the early 19th century as part of the science of education movement. Dewey as well as other progressive educators challenged the scientific research methods employed in the field of education. However, educational scientists, especially the behavioral scientists, soon overshadowed practitioner research. Practitioner inquiry did not regain interest until the seventies and eighties. Both Kurt Lewin, a social psychologist of the mid-forties, and Schon, through his work published in 1983, *The Reflective Practitioner*, influenced the movement.

Also in Chapter 2, the author treats in depth the core characteristic of AR, its reflexivity. AR is dynamic and unfolds through a mutually reinforcing process. Every successive cycle allows for interaction and feedback between all the cycles. To treat AR in a prescriptive and prescribed manner would concretize what is an essentially free and open course of action. Thus, proponents of AR argue that it is the best research method to examine systematically the complexity and the messiness of everyday life in the typical classroom. The steps of this open process are delineated in an easy-to-understand format and style on pages 35 to 42.

In Chapter 3, Burns anticipates complaints from teacher researchers that while the steps in the process are clear and while they can easily propose a variety of questions for exploratory teaching (as Burns calls AR integrated into the teaching practice), they have difficulty limiting the focus of the question. On pages 54 to 56 the author lists questions and statements to guide them in narrowing the focus enough to be managed. As further practical aid to teachers, Burns lists examples of starting points for research questions under various categories. These include affective factors, classroom groupings, course design, exploiting materials and available resources, learning strategies, classroom dynamics, developing and teaching specific skills, and teaching literacy, speaking or assessment. The process of forming the research question reveals two theoretical dimensions informing the teacher researcher's thinking: knowledge about learning or curriculum theories, and personal assumptions, beliefs, and values that the researcher herself brings to the research. Thus, the teacher benefits from this reflective process by gaining greater clarity about her practice. Burns treats ethical considerations thoroughly, stressing that the key principles are responsibility, confidentiality, and negotiation. Many learners, when asked to participate in a project guided by these principles, state that they feel that their opinions and contributions to the project are respected.

The listing and description of observational techniques for collecting data in Chapter 4 is comprehensive and comprehensible. These include: notes and diaries, teacher diaries or journals (intimate journals, memoirs, logs), proformas, audio and video recordings, transcriptions, photographs, and diagrams (maps, layouts, sociograms). Practical tips for busy teacher researchers include how to use peel-off address labels and manila folders with post-it notes or index cards. Pragmatic

suggestions for note-taking are detailed on page 87. How to use *proformas*, grids with headings (issue/question, action, reflection/comments), to separate descriptive aspects from reflective aspects to allow analysis and interpretation to become more focused is explained on pages 90 and 91. Insights on how learning situations are socially structured and that impact on classroom dynamics are offered through maps and *sociograms*, diagrams of the interaction preferences within a group from the perspective of the group members themselves. For instance, one teacher worried that her students invariably returned their desks and her own to the traditional arrangement, despite all her efforts to encourage, what she considered, a more democratic style through her moving the desks into a circle. Repeated mapping of the student arrangement prompted her to consider that perhaps they liked the security of tradition and were telling her that they considered their learning a serious matter.

An inclusive and intelligible inventory of non-observational techniques for data collection in Chapter 5 includes interviews (structured, semi-structured, unstructured), classroom discussions, surveys and questionnaires, student diaries and journals, life and career histories, documents, letters, and metaphor development. In designing questionnaires Burns encourages teachers to ensure that the way the questions are constructed will elicit the kind of information sought. Burns suggests that beginner L2 writers can participate in journal writing if the teacher provides a framework with leader statements like, I feel happy . . ., I think . . ., or I learned . . . . Of benefit to both teacher and student is the letter. First, the expert learners, those moving to the next grade, can write tips on learning English to the novices. These same letters can help teachers identify affective areas of importance to students and impart information on the course design and the course introduction to the incoming students.

Authorities referenced under the topics throughout the book are quite extensive and helpful. A twelve-page bibliography is also included. Suggestions for further reading divided under ten headings are found in the back of the book. These include: two key articles, accounts of AR by teachers who have conducted AR, journals carrying AR articles regularly, a mailing list, and action research networks.

To sum up, Burns makes a clear and well-documented argument that action research is not only refreshing, but also a powerful form of professional development because it moves from practice to theory rather than theory to practice, thus dealing with the classroom as it really is.

The Reviewer

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Language Teaching Awareness

Jerry G. Gebhard and Robert Oprandy.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999.
Pp. xvii + 237. (ISBN 0 521 63954 9 Paperback)

Reviewed by Michael Duffy

The final chapter of this book is an account of how one of the authors (Gebhard) searched across three countries for a yoga class that suited him. The first three attempts, in Hawaii and Tokyo, were unsuccessful for various reasons – the instruction was too prescriptive, insufficiently verbal, or too verbal – but then finally, in Bangkok, the author found a class that was to his liking. In that class, the teacher varied his feedback techniques, allowed the student autonomy, and was non-judgmental in his comments. Gebhard reflects on how his final yoga teacher's approach to instruction is similar to his own approach as an English teacher and teacher trainer. This reflection is presented as an example of one of five avenues to the exploration of teaching that the authors describe. They strongly argue the merits of an exploratory, as distinct from a developmental, approach, and advise readers at the outset to be "not overly concerned with improving your teaching" (p. xvi). They claim that "personal exploration may go further in the long run than mastery of the latest techniques and methods of language teaching" (p. 16).

The book is divided into three parts. The first (Chapters 1 and 2), written jointly by the two main authors, sets out the rationale for the exploratory approach, acknowledging their debt to the work of Fanselow (1987), and introduces the themes to be covered in the ensuing chapters. Part II (Chapters 3 to 7) is the main body of the book. Here the authors separately flesh out the approaches, with Gebhard covering observation, action research, and teaching journals, while Oprandy covers talking with supervisors and making personal connections. Part III (Chapters 9 to 11) picks up these five with examples of various exploration projects and includes contributions from a number of other teachers and trainees.

The purpose of observing ourselves teach is, in Fanselow's words, "to see teaching differently." It can be carried out in a number of ways – by participant or non-participant observers, by audio or video taping – but should always be descriptive, not judgmental. To this end, a taxonomic system such as Fanselow's FOCUS should be applied to the collected data before it is interpreted. In a project described in Section III, trainees discussing a series of "micro-lessons" they had given on cultural subjects quickly lapsed into judgment in their comments ("a really good lesson," "sounds like fun") when the supervisor was absent, illustrating how difficult it is to escape the language of evaluation.

Action research already has a considerable literature (most recently Burns, 1999, and Wallace, 1998), reflecting its popularity, which Gebhard believes stems from its problem-solving approach to teaching. Readers who are unfamiliar with the field may do well to begin with the sample list of action research problems provided on page 72 before proceeding to the rest of Chapter 4 – they are likely to strike a chord with many teachers.

Notwithstanding its obvious appeal, Gebhard stresses that action research is only one exploratory technique among many. In an appendix to Chapter 5, he gives some excerpts from a teaching journal which he kept while working at Thammasat University in Bangkok. This is an example of an intra-personal journal – for the writer's eyes only – as distinct from a dialogue journal, shared with other teachers or with a supervisor. Oprandy takes up the subject of exploring with a supervisor, which has traditionally been a hierarchical activity, with the supervisor taking an evaluative role and the observed teacher a passive one. This, he notes, has led to teachers taking easy options – comparatives, giving directions, present continuous – when teaching observed lessons. He indicates ways in which the teacher-supervisor relationship can be a collaborative rather than judgmental one.

Making personal connections to teaching involves keeping on the lookout for authentic materials and drawing on the teacher's own learning experiences, whether it's Oprandy's spell as a pizza maker or Gebhard's search for a yoga class. More than that, it also means bringing as much as one can of one's own personality and feelings into the classroom. In this connection, Oprandy recounts a story of how he once pretended to jump out of a window to show a class just how strongly he was feeling about their slackness in submitting assignments.

This book contains a great deal to interest any practicing teacher, particularly one who feels that the development of teaching requires the accumulation of an ever-increasing repertoire of techniques. One of the teacher contributors to Part III, Zubeyde Tezel, reports on an action research project aimed at getting ELT students to talk in one-to-one interviews, and concludes that "teaching can be accomplished if teachers follow students, not the packaged methods, to structure the learning/teaching process" (p. 209). Gebhard and Oprandy help supply teachers with the means needed to follow their students, but that said, I have to admit that I did not find the book an easy read. While it is somewhat enlivened by the anecdotes and case studies, neither of the authors possesses an elegant writing style, and both are apt to lapse into long, serpentine sentences and "academicspeak." It would find its greatest value as a text or manual for in-service training. In this regard, a particularly useful feature is the insertion of periodic "Task Breaks," aimed at giving readers some hands-on practice at self-observation. However, individual teachers able and willing to put time and effort into reading the book should also find their investment rewarded.

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Reviewed by Michael Duffy

The Reviewer

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Psychology for Language Teachers: A Social Constructivist Approach

Marion Williams and Robert L. Burden.
Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997.
Pp. ix + 240. (ISBN 0 521 49880 5 Paperback)

Reviewed by Rodney E. Tyson

I first became aware of the unique collaboration between Marion Williams, an applied linguist, and Robert L. Burden, an educational psychologist, when I attended their presentation on motivation in language learning at the 12th World Congress of Applied Linguistics in Tokyo in the summer of 1999 (Williams & Burden, 1999). That experience led me to buy a copy of their book, *Psychology for Language Teachers*, which I have found useful not just for its insightful chapter on motivation, but also because it is a thorough, and at the same time, very accessible overview of important issues and developments in the field of educational psychology of particular relevance to language teachers.

In his keynote address at the same conference, Michael Long (Long, 1999) pointed out that "all theories are at some level interim understandings of what theorists ultimately seek to explain" but stressed the importance of theories of second language acquisition (SLA) being judged on the basis of their relevance for language teaching. Williams and Burden would seem to agree when they argue that "there has never been a time when language teaching and learning was more in need of a systematic educational underpinning to its activities" (p. 44). They state that the main purpose of their book is to provide that type of underpinning.

The model they choose to provide the framework is that of a social constructivist approach, which they describe as a perspective in which "learners make their own sense of their world, but they do so within a *social context*, and through *social interaction*" (p. 28, italics in original). In that sense, learners may learn in very different ways, even when provided with very similar learning experiences, because each individual constructs his or her own reality.

The book contains ten chapters. The first two chapters provide an introduction to theories and developments in the field of educational psychology that have influenced language teaching and present the basic concepts of the authors' social constructivist approach. Four key factors are identified which interact to influence the learning process. These factors are teachers, learners, tasks, and contexts. As might be expected, the rest of the book elaborates on these four factors.

Two chapters focus on the role of teachers in the language learning process and what they can do to promote learning. Three chapters discuss, within the framework of the authors' social constructivist model, different aspects of what learners bring to the language learning situation – how individual learners "make sense" (p. 88) of their own learning situations, the "multifaceted nature" (p. 111) of motivation in language learning, and how it is that learners actually go about learning something. The last of these considers the skills and strategies learners make use of as well as the processes they go through to, again, "make sense" (p. 143) of their learning. One chapter each is then devoted to the remaining key factors in the model, that is, the place of tasks in the language classroom and the ways in which the learning context, or more realistically, the "variety of often overlapping contexts" (p. 188), affects language learning.

The final chapter provides a succinct summary of main ideas discussed throughout the book. This summary takes the form of a list of ten propositions that the authors consider "crucial for language teachers" (p. 204), each of which is followed by a very short and easily understandable explanation of the authors' views about that particular issue. In fact, this short chapter would be worth reading in its own right, even without the rest of the book. It would make excellent material, for example, for a discussion of teachers' practices and beliefs in a workshop setting or a graduate class in SLA or language teaching methodology.

In *Psychology for Language Teachers*, Williams and Burden summarize a vast amount of relevant research related to language learning and teaching, but make it accessible to the average language teacher. For readers with teaching experience but little or no background in SLA theory and the psychology of language learning, this is an excellent introduction that should be both understandable and useful. For readers with more extensive knowledge of SLA theory, the review of the psychology research fills in some of the background information about how and why the theories developed, which is (perhaps understandably) usually left out of other popular books written by and for language teachers or applied linguists (e.g., Brown, 1994; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). In this sense, it provides some reassurance to teachers by showing that the prominent theories of SLA and methods of language teaching did not just develop in a vacuum, but that there really is some solid psychological research backing them up.

Most importantly, this book really is written for language teachers, although it can be read at two different levels. For those interested in psychological theory, there is a thorough overview of the important research and developments in the field related to language teaching, which can be appreciated regardless of one's particular theoretical views. For those who are simply interested in developing their teaching ability, on the other hand, there is a wealth of theoretically-grounded, but straight-forward advice for language teachers. This book, then, should be useful for virtually all practicing language teachers as well as graduate students in fields related to language teaching.

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The Reviewer

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The Learning Strategies Handbook

Anna Uhl Chamot, Sarah Barnhadt,
Pamela Beard El-Dinary & Jill Robbins.
White Plains, NY: Longman, 1999.
Pp. vi + 249. (ISBN 0201385481)

Reviewed by Andrew Finch

Introduction

Investigation of the way in which learners approach learning problems has been an important part of language learning pedagogy and research for some time. If we classify grammar, phonology, syntax and semantics as specific types of learning strategies, then it could be said that the study of second language acquisition is about the relative effectiveness of different conscious and unconscious learning strategies. With the move towards communicative competence as a learning goal for second language education, and the associated focus on autonomy, authenticity and affect as determiners of learning, more specific attention has recently been given to the micro-skills and meta-skills of language learning, which have taken on the classification of "learning strategies," and which "are being revealed in more and more areas of language learning" (McDonough, 1999, p. 13).

Research indicates that more successful language learners are aware of the strategies they use and why they use them (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Green & Oxford 1995, p. 262) and that they generally tailor their strategies to the language task and to their own personal needs as learners (Wenden, 1991, p. 13), using strategies appropriate to their own stage of learning, personality, age, purpose for learning the language, type of language (Bates, 1972) and gender (Oxford & Nyikos, 1988, p. 326). Students who are less successful at language learning are also able to identify their own strategies, but "do not know how to choose the appropriate strategies or how to link them together into a useful 'strategy chain'" (Block, 1986). Strategy training aims to "explicitly teach students how, when, and why strategies can be used to facilitate their efforts at learning and using a foreign language" (Weaver & Cohen, 1998, p. 69), and to promote learner autonomy by allowing students to spontaneously choose their own strategies.

Early research on learner training (especially in the USA) tried to analyze what "successful" language learners do when they learn a language so that the results could be extrapolated to and implemented in learner-training programs (Rubin & Thompson, 1982). However, as Tudor points out (1996, p. 39) such characteristics

and strategies cannot be simply "pedagogized" and used to enable all learners to become successful:

> We need to set up types of learning, not types of learners. In this light, the aim of learner-training should be to help learners to come to terms with their strengths and weaknesses, and to find the strategies that suit them best, rather than trying to make everyone a "successful learner."
> *(Gremmo, 1995, p. 158)*

Oxford & Nyikos (1989, p. 291) observe that researchers have identified a number of factors related to choice of language learning strategies. These include: i) the language being learned, ii) the level of language learning, proficiency, or the course, iii) the degree of metacognitive awareness, iv) gender, v) affective variables such as attitudes, motivation, and language learning goals, vi) specific personality traits, vii) overall personality type, viii) learning style, ix) career orientation or field of specialization, x) national origin, xi) aptitude, xii) language teaching methods, xiii) task requirements, and xiv) type of strategy training. These results have shown that effective second and foreign language learners use a variety of appropriate metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies for both receptive and productive tasks, while less effective students not only use strategies less frequently but have a smaller repertoire of strategies and often do not choose appropriate strategies for the task (Chamot & Kupper, 1989, p. 13).

A number of benefits are claimed to result from learner training:

1. "Strategy training can ... be used to help learners achieve learner autonomy as well as linguistic autonomy" (Weaver & Cohen, 1998, p. 70).
2. Learning can be more effective when learners take control of their own learning because they learn what they are ready to learn (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, p. 2).
3. Those learners who are responsible for their own learning can carry on learning outside the classroom (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989, p. 2).
4. Learners who know about learning can transfer learning strategies to other subjects (cf. Hallgarten & Rostworowska, 1985, p. 4).
5. Strategies help students to handle different task types and learning situations efficiently and with confidence (Victori & Lockhart, 1995, p. 223).
6. Use of appropriate learning strategies enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by enhancing learner autonomy, independence and self-direction (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989, p. 291).
7. "... cognitive psychology shows that learning strategies help learners to assimilate new information into their own existing mental structures of schemata, thus creating increasingly rich and complex schemata" (Brown & Palinscar, 1982).
8. Unlike most other learner characteristics (e.g., aptitude, attitude, motivation, personality, general cognitive style), learning strategies are readily *teachable* (Brown, 1987).

The Book

Identification of these benefits has in turn lead to the "explicit-implicit" debate, with some educators (e.g., Willis, 1996) advocating the teaching of strategies separately from the language, and others saying that it should be implicit in the learning environment. This book is firmly in the "explicit" camp, providing "a practical approach to learning strategies instruction" (p. 2).

A significant part of the Introduction section of this Handbook (Chapter 1) concerns National Curriculum Standards, revealing a strong TESL tendency, relevant for teachers in North American elementary and secondary education, using content-based language instruction and portfolio assessment. Comments elsewhere in the book, however, state that it also has applications in TEFL and can be used by teachers in most learning situations.

The book is well organized and sets about its task systematically and clearly, balancing well-documented explanations of relevant theory and research with ample practical sections and sample teaching materials, so essential to the teacher who typically has so little time to spend on materials preparation for each lesson. Chapter 2 thus provides a metacognitive model of learning, including a description of 27 strategies used by "good" learners. This leads into Chapter 3, in which the authors derive a Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), which they demonstrate as the book progresses:

> The theoretical framework of CALLA is a social-cognitive learning model that emphasizes the role of students' prior knowledge, the importance of collaborative learning, and the development of metacognitive awareness and self-reflection. (p.7)

In this model, the traditional "Three P's" teaching approach is expanded into five stages, which combine content, language, and learning strategies:

1. Preparation: analyze the student's level of language and learning strategies and content.
2. Presentation: demonstration, modeling, visual support.
3. Practice: activities involving collaboration, problem-solving, inquiry, experience.
4. Evaluation: self-evaluation.
5. Expansion: application.

Chapters 4 through 8 then take us through each of the five CALLA stages, balancing "general guidelines" with helpful examples and sample strategy questionnaires. A feature of the Handbook which is very noticeable at this stage is the consistent and clear format in which "instructional objectives" are presented at the

beginning of each chapter, sections are well-labeled and easy to read, lots of "tips" and reflective questions appear next to the main text, and plentiful sample teaching materials amplify the points being made. The copyright proviso inside the front cover would seem to prohibit the use of these materials for photocopying, though the description on the back cover (Jim Cummins) itemizes "Reproducible charts, graphs, and checklists to help you integrate learning strategies in your classroom."

Chapters 9 and 10 are titled "From Theory Through Practice" and after another more extended explanation of language-learning theory (Ch. 9) present sample "Language Learning Strategies Lessons" (Ch. 10). These use various learning content (e.g., "Using Background Knowledge," "Setting Goals," "Checking Goals," "Selective Attention," "Cooperation," "Deduction," "Grouping," "Evaluating Strategies," "Prediction," "Imagery," "Inferencing," "Organizational Planning," "Personalization," "Evaluate Yourself," "Self-Talk," "Substitution," and "Summarize") and take the teacher through the five CALLA stages, suggesting how they might be applied in individual lessons and series of lessons. These suggested lesson plans are extremely practical, offering language objectives, strategy objectives, strategy rationales, and materials, as well as step-by-step explanation of how to apply the learning infrastructure.

Conclusion

Though labeled "Handbook," this teaching resource is a well-constructed and thoughtful justification of the need for the teaching of learner strategies in education in general, in addition to its more ostensible role of being a useful source of practical suggestions for how to do this. Such a systematic and clear demonstration of how to apply language theory is rare in the literature, and Longman has further enhanced its reputation for books that meet the "real" needs of "real" teachers by including it in its catalogue.

The only reservation to this conclusion is that the explicitness of the CALLA approach, so similar to the discredited "PPP" model (cf. Skehan, 1996; Stern, 1983; White, 1988), raises the issue of the feasibility of trying to "teach independence." Rather than letting the students determine what they want to learn and how they want to learn it and preparing them for problem-solving experiences in school and life, the teacher is still at the center of this model, deciding what the students need and showing them how to acquire it. One wonders how well this fits in with the modern role of counselor and facilitator. If the reader agrees with the concept of teaching learning strategies, however, this promises to be a valuable and well-grounded teaching resource: "indispensable ... for all classroom teachers committed to increasing the effectiveness of students' learning" (Cummins, back cover).

The Reviewer

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Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (6th ed.)

A.S. Hornby (S. Wehmeier, Ed.).
Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000.
Pp. xii + 1539. (ISBN 0 19 431 510 X Paperback)

Reviewed by David E. Shaffer

The demand of the English-learning community worldwide for a comprehensive, easily accessible, and reliable English resource has been rapidly increasing. This demand led to more impressions of the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* being made in fewer years – 65 impressions in 5 years – than ever before. It has also led to the publication of a sixth edition (OALD6). This new edition is not merely one in name but one in substance, a "radically revised (reference) for the new millennium" (front cover).

OALD6 is truly a joy to use. It is amazing how easily accessible this tome's vast store of information is. It has to be the most user-friendly, information-intensive dictionary available for the upper-intermediate to advanced English learner. A major problem with general monolingual dictionaries is that their definitions, although precise, are often too difficult for the language learner to easily understand. OALD6 has addressed this problem by reducing its defining vocabulary to less than 3000 words, a reduction of 500 words from the fifth edition of OALD, making headword definitions even easier to understand while retaining preciseness. Some dictionaries, such as the Cambridge series of learner's dictionaries, do have an even smaller defining vocabulary of only 2000 words. Their target audience, however, is not mainly the advanced learner; they cater to the intermediate-level learner and above.

How visually pleasing a dictionary is and how easy it is to use are two major considerations in purchasing any learner's dictionary. OALD6 gets high marks in both of these categories. The 6th edition has implemented the liberal use of boxes, which remind one of the dialogue boxes in a computer application, for easy-to-view additional information. The majority of these boxes are *Which Word* boxes, which contrast two or more easily confused words. The *Which Word* boxes replace the *Notes* of the former edition, which appeared between two less-esthetic heavy black lines, and expand upon them. The *Which Word* boxes appear at the end of entries and, in addition to giving the differences between similar words in easy-to-understand explanations, provide clear and useful example sentences, including common errors with lines drawn through them. For example, at the end of the entry for *hard*, the words *hard* and *hardly* are contrasted; for the entry *student*, the five terms *student*, *pupil*, *undergraduate*, *graduate*, and *postgraduate* are contrasted.

In addition to the *Which Word* boxes, there are five other types of completely new boxes: *Word Family*, *Vocabulary Building*, *Grammar Point*, *British/American*, and *More About*. *Word Family* boxes often appear to the far right of a headword and contain other words derived from the headword root. In the *Word Family* box for the headword *destroy*, you will find: *destroy* v., *destroyer* n., *destruction* n., *destructive* adj., *indestructible* adj., making it quite easy to see what words are derived from the word you are concerned with at the moment and making it easy to increase one's vocabulary even further.

One will also find *Vocabulary Building* boxes interspersed throughout the dictionary. These may contain near synonyms and their meanings and usage. For the headword *fat*, you will find in the box *chubby*, *tubby*, *stocky*, *stout*, *overweight*, *obese*, and half a dozen others. In contrast, the vocabulary box for *smells* contains eight adjectives describing pleasant and unpleasant *smells* (including *scented*, *aromatic*, *fragrant* and *stinking*, *musty*, *acrid*) as well as an equal number of nouns for types of pleasant and unpleasant smells. Different yet is the box for *body*. In it you will find sixteen physical actions which express emotions, the corresponding part of the body they are made with, and the feeling they express. All these can be of immense help in building one's vocabulary efficiently with a clear understanding of the subtleties between words. *Grammar Point* boxes similarly clarify things such as the usage of *each/every* and of *should/ought /had better* and the number of *staff*.

Of great interest, even enthralling, are the *British/American* boxes, which highlight the differences in word usage on the two sides of the Atlantic. In these boxes you will find, clearly explained, the differences in American and British English usage of items like: *underground/subway/metro/tube*, *holiday/vacation*, *a bit/a little/a little bit*, and *different from/to/than*. Differences that do not need lengthy explanations are not put in boxes but are instead marked *BrE* or *AmE* in the entry for the headword, as is the case with *lift/elevator* and *lorry/truck*.

Also new in this edition are the valuable *More About* boxes. They include information less of a linguistic and more of a cultural nature. In them you will find information such as how and when to use different greetings, what gender-related words to use and not to use in order to avoid being offensive, and what meal of the day *dinner* or *tea* may refer to. This type of information is essential for English learners, but is ignored by most other dictionaries.

Each entry in OALD6 begins with a headword in easy-to-see bold letters, followed by pronunciation – BrE first, AmE second when they differ. Pronunciation follows the IPA system with its symbols at the bottom of each page. Next are the definitions of the headword, sometimes ten to twenty. Reading through so many of these to find the correct one often is more than the learner wishes to do, so they simply give up on the task instead. To address this problem, OALD6 has employed *shortcuts* – section titles for definitions. For example, for *relief*, the first two defini-

tions are grouped under the shortcut heading *Removal of pain/anxiety*, two more are under *Help*, the next under *On tax*, one under *Sth different*, and one under *Workers*. These shortcuts are very timesaving, leading the user more quickly to the definition they are seeking than do other learner dictionaries.

Longman was the first to use shortcuts, which they call *sign posts*. They appear, however, only in the *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (LDCE), not in their *Language Activator*, *Dictionary of English Language and Culture*, or *Dictionary of American English*. The sign posts in LDCE are in a font so similar is size to the headword that the two are easily confused. The *Cambridge International Dictionary of English* and the *Cambridge Dictionary of American English* use shortcuts almost identical to OALD6. Unfortunately, they make a new entry with a new headword in front of each definition with a shortcut, making it easy to confuse the additional entry or entries as being completely unrelated words and, therefore, making it easy for them to be overlooked.

For headwords with multiple definitions, the most commonly used definition is listed first for user convenience. Also found in the entries are idioms the headword is used in, phrasal verbs in which the headword appears, and short "help" notes that aid in avoiding common errors. These are labeled IDM, PHR V, and HELP, respectively, and appear in easy-to-spot black boxes. Slang and technical terms are also listed and are labeled as such. The terms *transitive* and *intransitive* have always been easy to confuse, even for the native speaker. OALD6 avoids their use by opting for grammar codes such as V for intransitive and VN and VNN for transitive verbs. Numerous other helpful grammar codes are also employed, such as codes which indicate that a verb takes a gerund or an infinitive and the structure in which it is taken. Irregular verb, participle, and plural forms are given at the beginning of an entry, and synonyms and opposites are given at the end. In this respect, no other comparable dictionary comes close to providing comparable information, save for the *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary* and the *Collins Cobuild Learner's Dictionary*.

Example phrases and sentences are abundant in the entries. They are not, however, chosen at random, as seems to be the case in many other dictionaries. Collocation is given utmost consideration. Headwords in examples therefore appear with words that they are most frequently used with. For example, in the entry for *wine*, one will find *red/rose/white wine*, informing the learner that *rose wine*, not *pink wine*, is the correct collocation. What are not found in the entries are etymologies. The rationale for this is likely that including etymologies would take up valuable space and that English learner's do not have a need to know the origins of words to learn English. However, many advanced learners do have a desire to know where a word comes from and being able to find this out would increase motivation to learn the language.

New to this edition is an eight-page, color-illustrated section on foods, fruits, vegetables, clothes, and animals. As is the case throughout the dictionary, where British and American English names differ, both are given. The two sections of study pages in the 5th edition have been compiled into one centrally located section of pages with a light blue background and pleasing arrangement of material, which makes the section inviting rather than forbidding. The third special section is an eight-page presentation of maps of the world and the major English-speaking countries – in color for the first time in this new edition. Inconspicuously missing from this edition is the section on the governments and legal systems of the U.S. and the U.K.

Regrettably missing from OALD6 is word frequency information. This is very simply and very conveniently included in the Collins Cobuild dictionaries in the form of frequency bands consisting of a row of five diamonds by each headword – the more diamonds filled in black, the higher the frequency of use. This is information that can be quite useful to the language learner and takes up little space, but unfortunately not included in OALD6.

OALD6 adds 4,500 new words and definitions, including *spin doctor*, *webmaster*, *mouse pad/mat*, *spamming*, and *docusoap*, includes new phrases such as *Don't ask* and *Get off my case*, and contains roughly 30,000 headwords. The definitions have been rewritten for more clarity, and the use of shortcuts and boxes makes essential information easy to access and pleasing to view. For these reasons, OALD6 is quickly becoming the dictionary of choice on this writer's desk. This is a desk dictionary, not a pocket dictionary. As such, the language learner, who needs a dictionary like this in the classroom, in the study room and at home, may be dissuaded from carrying it with them due to its size. However, an interactive CD-ROM version with spoken headwords, games, and exercises is also available for use with a computer. As were its predecessors, OALD6 is a competitively priced learner's dictionary. Its list price is 35,000 won in South Korea, but it is available online at £14.00/US$21.00. Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionaries have long been best-selling dictionaries, and OALD6 is sure to continue that tradition as a learner's dictionary for the new millennium.

The Reviewer

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Teaching Collocation: Further Developments in the Lexical Approach

Michael Lewis (Ed.).
Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications, 2000.
Pp. 245. (ISBN 1 899396 11 X)

Reviewed by Brian Heldenbrand

To begin with, what does the title mean? Most people choose a book because they are already familiar with the topic, but for some the title gives a hint as to the material to be discussed. In the case of this book, the term "collocation" might scare away many avid readers. For those familiar with the subject of collocation, the title will not cause any alarm, but for the new teacher, the term *collocation* may easily result in mental panic and a searching of their mental lexicon for the definition of the unfamiliar word. *Collocation* is clearly defined in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* as "the fact of two or more words often being used together, in a way that happens more frequently than would happen by chance." For some experienced educators in the field of teaching, the term *collocation* will immediately guide them to an understanding of the scope of the text, but for teachers with little or no prior ELT experience, this book will at first glance appear overly technical and of little relevance to their educational needs. However, for the inexperienced and experienced teacher alike, this book can open the door to a fuller understanding of how to lead students to grasping more of the English language in the classroom and through independent study.

Most language learners begin their study of English at ground zero. They do not have a vast store of language to tap in speaking or writing, whereas native speakers of English are quick to grasp words and expressions that they learned through childhood poems, nursery rhymes, songs, bedtime stories, and other oral language. As a result, they already have an abundant supply of varied language expressions stored in their mental lexicon. Language acquisition specialists believe this language is stored in chunks rather than individual words, allowing for an unlimited combination of expressions and a larger vocabulary. Language learning is moving toward finding a method to lead language learners to acquire a large mental lexicon. The traditional approach has resulted in speakers and writers who are well versed in grammar rules, but have a limited vocabulary. This basic vocabulary along with a solid background in grammar has "stunted the learner's growth" and has proven him ineffective in advanced speaking and writing. The contributors to this volume have provided keen insights and practical ideas to guide learners in building their vocabulary and enhancing their writing skill.

In order to better introduce the concept of collocation, it is necessary to use some examples made by the individual writers of the text. Each contributor defines collocation in their own particular way but does not sway from the main definition of two or more words that tend to occur together. Collocations can be of several different types, for example:

verb + object	*submit a report*
adjective + noun	*a difficult decision*
verb + preposition	*engage in*
adverb + adjective + noun	*highly irregular situation*
noun + verb	*the fog closed in*
noun + noun	*radio station*
verb + adverb	*examine thoroughly*

It is common for learners to be familiar with each word used separately, but when these words are brought together, their usage may change. In such a situation it is common for learners to make what appears to be a grammatical error in speaking and writing, when actually the error results from a collocation the learner was not aware of. As a result, the learner must use more words to explain their meaning and in turn produce a sentence containing a grammatical error. Most teachers will simply correct the grammatical error and move on, without fully recognizing that collocation was the root cause of the mistake. The contributors believe that teachers need to be more aware of actively used collocations in order to more clearly recognize the error as being one of a lexical nature. *Teaching Collocations* will broaden the perspective of both the teacher and the learner in strengthening their comprehension of word groups and the usage of certain collocations in spoken and written language.

The format of most books tends to progress from theory to practice, but this text reverses the order, greatly improving the element of understanding. Each chapter is written clearly and it is easy to follow the points made by each contributor. Although from the title this book appears quite intense for most readers, the practical points and suggestions made are eye-opening. Each contributor gives their understanding of collocation and leads the reader to observe the benefits of adapting collocation to their ongoing classroom activities. Each contributor gives suggestions for teaching expressions and promoting long-term recall by using specific examples and exercises. For language teachers involved in teaching writing, business English, or any specific field of research, this book will be of great value by providing beneficial ideas to improve a learner's lexical deficiency and enhance their mental lexicon for business affairs, presentations, and writing clearer and more precise papers.

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Regarding the element of language theory, the contributors to this book focus on **three** particular themes:

1 The mental lexicon is larger than we previously thought.
2 The prefabricated chunks stored in our mental lexicons ready for use are often larger than previously recognized.
3 Really 'knowing a word' involves knowing its grammar – the patterns in which it is regularly used.

Chapters 1 through 5 center on the use of collocation in the classroom. Chapter 1 focuses on the title's premise "There is nothing as practical as a good theory." Chapters 2 and 3 provide key points on encouraging the teacher to assume the role of learning manager, on encouraging learner autonomy, and on directing teachers away from the traditional grammar approach, toward one of applying collocation. Chapter 4 discusses the use of collocation in the reading and writing classroom, and Chapter 5 shares a large number of strategies, activities, and exercises addressing collocation in the classroom. The lexical approach is discussed in detail in Chapters 7 and 8, with Chapter 9 looking at materials and resources available for teaching collocation. Chapter 10 directs our attention to testing and collocation, while Chapter 11 shares new perspectives on teaching vocabulary.

With a focus on developing the lexical ability of each learner, the contributors pinpoint elements that are necessary for teachers to apply in the classroom. As one of the contributors, Jimmie Hill, suggests, "putting lexis rather than grammar at the center of language teaching is more than just a modest change, it is a revolution" (p. 47). This statement is a clear picture of the direction in which each contributor believes language teaching will move in the future. The ideas provided in this book are sure to bring about positive adjustments in how a teacher approaches teaching vocabulary and how language learners continues their march toward fluency.

The Reviewer

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Hornby, A.S. (2000). Oxford advanced learner's dictionary (6th ed.). (S. Wehmeier, Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Pronunciation Power 1 and 2

English Computerized Learning, Inc., 2000 and 1996.

Reviewed by David D.I. Kim

Pronunciation Power 1 (PP1) and Pronunciation Power 2 (PP2) are wonderful interactive programs for language learners hoping to improve their English pronunciation. Although PP1 is intended for beginner-intermediate and PP2 for intermediate-advanced students, both programs are suited for all levels. Directions and instructions for PP1 are available in 13 languages, including Korean (for PP2, which was actually developed before PP1, they are only in English). The format is ideally suited for self-study, but could be adapted to a speech laboratory, or even a classroom, setting.

Installation is quite simple, taking less than ten minutes to setup and get the application running. Most computers sold today meet the minimum systems requirements to run the application (details provided at the end of this review). About 5 MB of hard drive space is required and the programs run primarily from the CD-ROM.

Navigating through either the PP1 or the PP2 application is extremely simple, with intuitive menu systems directing the user through lessons and exercises. Although tutorial and help menus are available, most users will probably not need to reference them. The user can quickly access any one of the 52 sounds in the English language marked as phonetic alphabet symbols (and example words for those unfamiliar with the phonetic alphabet) via a pull down menu (PP1) or icon buttons (PP2), accompanied by audible sounds via speakers and/or headphones as marked.

Common to both PP1 and PP2 are three areas of study for a particular sound: Lessons, Speech Analysis, and Exercises (all the features and function in PP2 are contained in PP1). PP1, contains additional exercises – extra Listening Discrimination Exercises and S.T.A.I.R. (Stress, Timing, Articulation, Intonation and pitch, and Rhythm) Exercises – that are not available in PP2, as well as a variety of interactive games that provide opportunities for listening and speech production practice.

The Lessons area of study offers visual and auditory instructions for producing each sound. Audible sounds are accompanied by visual illustrations (a side and a front view) of real-time articulatory movements for the production of the sounds. For the side view, animated drawings provide an x-rayed look of the complete articulatory mechanics, including manner and location of airflow, lips and tongue placement and movement, velum movement, and whether a sound is voiced or voiceless. For the front view, a video clip of a real person is shown, demonstrating jaw, lip, and tongue protrusion movement. A written description, and at times suggestions, for

producing the sound is provided, which the user can access as an auditory clip; i.e., the user can also choose to listen to the instructor read the description or suggestion. The Lessons are useful features that provide helpful instructions in written and animated video format for the user.

The Speech Analysis area of study offers the user a look at graphic representations of the sound utterance as a waveform. The user is able to record their own production of the sound, and then compare their waveform of the sound with that of the instructor. The waveforms provide information concerning the loudness (amplitude) and pitch (frequency) of sounds, as well as duration (length). An identical waveform match between the user and instructor may prove impossible to achieve, even for native English speakers, since each person's voice is unique (a fact that is acknowledged by the programmers). Given this, the user's waveform will most always be different from that of the instructor's, and attempting to interpret subtle differences in pitch may prove difficult for the user. However, gross differences are easily detected, aiding the user in approximating the sound utterance of the instructor.

The "*power*" of the Pronunciation Power software is the relative ease by which the user can compare their speech production with that of a native English speaking instructor. The user, after listening to the instructor's voice, can record their reproduction of the instructor's utterances of individual sounds, words and/or complete sentences. After which a toggle feature offers easy and quick comparison of the user's reproduction with that of the instructor's. Thus, the user is afforded a model to compare their pronunciation, facilitating the precise identification of mispronunciation through self-monitoring (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996), leading to improvement in successive approximation (Kim, 1999). This listen-record-playback-compare feature is especially useful in the Exercises area of study.

The Exercises area of study is comprised of a variety of lessons: Sample Words, Comparative Words, S.T.A.I.R. (PP1 only), Sentences, and Listening Discrimination. The first four lessons incorporate the listen-record-playback-compare feature in the exercises, while the last is a listening drill. For the Sample Words exercises, individual words are presented, with the sound-to-be-practiced presented at the beginning, middle, and end of the words. For the Comparative Words exercises, contrastive minimal pairs (word pairs that differ by only one sound, e.g., *c*at – *b*at) are provided. For the S.T.A.I.R. exercises, users can practice English stress, timing, articulation, intonation-pitch, and rhythm patterns by reading along with the highlighted flow of text. For the Sentences exercises, sentences are provided containing numerous occurrences of the sound-to-be-practiced in various positions in words (initial, middle, and final). Finally, the Listening Discrimination exercises contain practice drills for discriminating contrastive minimal pairs embedded in sentences. These exercises should provide excellent practice for the users.

The PP1 software also comes with numerous interactive games, useful in testing one's newfound skills in listening discrimination (matching the instructor's

utterances of words with pictures, and individual sounds with words) and speech production (utterance of words with missing letters and timed recognition-utterance of a large selection of pictures). In addition, the PP1 software also contains a dictionary (bonus software) of word utterances in glossary form with associated pictures to the majority of words contained therein. The listen-record-playback-compare feature is also part of the dictionary, thus the user can practice their pronunciation of additional words. Also, the user can permanently store their voice recordings to floppy disk or hard drive to play back later, thus providing a means of monitoring their progress. This feature may prove to be impractical, however, since each voice recording must be stored as a separate file (each about 100-150KB of disk space for 1-2 seconds of recording, which might lead to a large chunk of disk space being used, not to mention the time and effort required for categorizing and typing the file names for each sound segment).

The Pronunciation Power software is a wonderful interactive program for improving English pronunciation, but does have one shortcoming. The software does not provide a means for identifying which of the fifty-two sounds the user should target for improvement. The user is on his/her own to perform self-testing and/or rely on a trial-and-error method to identify the sounds for improvement. One method to overcome this shortcoming, and supplement the Pronunciation Power software, is to reference Nilsen and Nilsen's (1973) resource book *Pronunciation Contrasts in English*, which provides an extensive list of minimal-pair contrasts that are cross-referenced with a list of countries that may not have a particular English phoneme in their language. The user could refer to this resource book to identify certain sounds to target.

Another method for identifying the sounds for improvement would be to have the English instructor perform pronunciation assessments with the aid of assessment tools (e.g., Kim & Margolis, 2000; Prator & Robinett, 1985), and then provide feedback to effectively and efficiently direct the students. This would not only help the student's before using the software, but is essential in monitoring their progress.

The Pronunciation Power software is ideally suited for self-study but could, with a bit of imagination and appropriate hardware, be easily adapted for use in speech labs or the classroom. It is unfortunate that the cost of the software (US$144.95 for PP1, US$83.95 for PP2, and US$194.95 for both, plus US$5.95 S&H) may be prohibitive for some students.

In summary, the Pronunciation Power software is a "powerful" interactive self-study tool that guides learners of the English language in improving their pronunciation through simple progressive stages. Visual and auditory instructions impart instructional foundation for proper articulation of English sounds. The listen-record-playback-compare feature affords easy and rapid modeled feedback to steer the student towards self-monitored improvements. While the exercises and games provide extensive reinforcement in speaking and listening, within the contextualized linguistic environment of words and sentences. To iterate a well-know expression "I give it a thumbs up."

Minimum Operating System Requirements

Windows 95; 98; 2000: PP1-Intel Pentium/100 MHz, *PP2*-MPC2 compliant, 486/66 MHz or greater processor; *PP1*-32 MB of RAM, *PP2*-12 MB of RAM; *PP1*-800X600 resolution at 16-bit (thousands) of color; *PP2*-SVGA graphics card with compatible monitor; high-quality *PP1*-4X, *PP2*-double-speed CD-ROM drive or faster; *Both*-SoundBlaster compatible sound card, high-quality microphone and/or speakers, 5 MB of available disk space.

Windows 3.11 (PP2 only): MPC2 compliant, 486/66 MHz or greater processor, 8 MB RAM, SVGA graphics card with compatible monitor, high-quality double-speed CD-ROM drive, SoundBlaster compatible sound card, high-quality microphone, speakers, 5 MB of available disk space.

MacOS Compatible Computers: *PP1*-PowerPC, 100MHz or faster, System 7.5.3 or later, *PP2*-Macintosh 40 MHz 68040 or better, or any Power Macintosh, System 7 or higher; *PP1*-20MB of available RAM, *PP2*-6MB of free RAM; *PP1*-800X600 resolution at 16-bits of color, *PP2*-640X480 resolution display; *PP1*-4X, *PP2*-double-speed CD-ROM drive; *Both*-high-quality microphone and/or speakers, 5MB of available disk space.

The Reviewer

David Kim (B.S., University of Toronto; M.A., Chung-Ang University) is presently a Ph.D. candidate at Yonsei University. His research interests include teaching and testing English pronunciation, cross-cultural issues in language learning, and teaching methodology. Email: kdi@yonsei.ac.kr

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The ELLIS Suite: *Intro* and *Business*

CALI, Inc., *Intro* version 2.1, 1998; *Business*, 1999.

Reviewed by Myung-Jai Kang

Reviewing software is somewhat different from reviewing a book in that the program has to first be installed properly on the personal computer. For this a degree of technical and computer competence is required. Some technical difficulties may be encountered in the process of installation and may be time-consuming. In my case, I had no difficulty with *ELLIS Intro* but needed on-line technical support for *ELLIS Business*. After emailing them about my problem, I got a quick answer from the ELLIS Technical Support team, and after following the kind and clear instructions, I succeeded in installing *ELLIS Business*.

When I heard of the ELLIS Suite for the first time, I immediately associated it with the renowned ESL researcher and author Rod Ellis. ELLIS, however, is unrelated; it stands for *English Language Learning and Instruction System* developed by CALI, Inc. of the U.S.A. The ELLIS Suite software consists of eleven compact disks including one installation and management CD. *Intro*, *Middle Mastery*, and *Senior Mastery* are the three core programs of ELLIS which cover English instruction from the beginning to advanced level (1 CD for each program). *ELLIS Business*, a five-CD program, deals with real-life situations of the business world. The three other programs (1 CD each) are *Master Pronunciation*, which is a practice program for pronunciation skills, *Placement*, an on-line computer-adaptive assessment program, and *Instructor Utilities*, which can be used for instructors to maintain student records and view on-screen the progress of each student.

Of the programs of the ELLIS Suite mentioned above, I have mainly reviewed *ELLIS Intro* and *Business*, which each received the Award of Excellence from the magazine *Technology & Learning*. The 1998-1999 award went to *Intro*, and the 1999-2000 award went to *Business*.

ELLIS Intro

ELLIS Intro is a beginning to intermediate program which contains 35 lessons with eight themes and 400 hours of interactive instruction. It teaches survival skills to beginners using colorful graphics in an interactive picture dictionary, innovative More Pages, and Practice, which includes a variety of items with instructions in both the native language (in this case, Korean) and English. The Lesson Menu of *Intro*

offers many options (video dialogue, lessons, games, tests, and a grammar guide). Learners can have access to all kinds of instructional material (listening comprehension, vocabulary, phrases, grammar, culture, pronunciation, and the More section) on the Script Page. In the Role Play section for each video dialogue, learners can interact with the dialogues on-screen where they can be part of the action. If the speed of speech in the video segment is too fast, learners can slow it down by clicking on a turtle icon. They can also record their own speech for comparison to that of native English speakers, which is one of the most fun and strongest points of *Intro*. The best part of *Intro* has to be the More section, which allows learners to access more information on vocabulary, grammar, culture, video, and pronunciation activities for pacing their own instruction. Another strength of *Intro* is in teaching grammar to learners using a powerful method: the Grammar Guide introduces the grammar structures and rules, elicits learner participation, and then provides the learner with corrective feedback for self-paced instruction.

ELLIS Business

ELLIS Business is an intermediate to advanced series which consists of five volumes with 156 lessons developed in twelve modules and provides 750 hours of available instruction. The twelve themes of *Business* are divided into six basic survival language skills: Airports, Ground Transportation, Hotels, Food, Phone Skills, and Greetings, Introductions, and Farewells, and six specific business skills: Discussing Business, Business Social Skills, Contracts, Negotiations, Planning, and Meetings. Each of the twelve modules focuses on enhancing business communication skills with realistic business scenarios for a range of users from entry-level personnel to the executive.

The Lesson Menu of each theme offers several lessons, a game, and a test. Unique is the open-ended dialogues of each lesson, which allow learners to choose the outcome of the scene. In the Lesson Menu, it is also convenient for learners to see a check mark next to the lesson title of each lesson that has already been explored, telling them where they have been. Role Play is a very interactive and fun section, just as mentioned for *Intro*. Learners select a character from the dialogue presented on-screen and take the role of that character in authentic speaking situations in a non-threatening way. While role-playing, learners can enjoy practicing the dialogues as many times as they wish, not only recording their own voices but also comparing their pronunciation and intonation with those of native English speakers. As with *Intro*, on the Script Page, learners can gain access to instructions for vocabulary, phrases, grammar, culture, etc. By clicking Game and Test, which are just perfectly designed, learners can review each lesson through the maze game and find out their scores as a percentage by solving 25 test questions for each lesson.

The Practice section is the strongest part of *Business* as well as *Intro* because it covers all subjects taught and provides a positive learning environment for learners by not scoring the test but instead giving them corrective feedback for their answer choices. The native language (Korean, in this case) support guide can help low-level learners in choosing and understanding items, but is not of much help to advanced learners nor need it be. It is true, however, that most ESL/EFL learners feel more comfortable when they hear their native language from any English learning program. This is bound to increase learner motivation. Aside from the contents, the technical functions of *Business* are almost the same as those of *Intro*, using advanced multimedia capabilities to combine high-quality graphics, digital sound and voice recording, full-motion video, text, and interactive screen controls in a user-friendly environment.

While reviewing *Intro* and *Business* of the ELLIS Suite, I searched for some weakness but none was to be found. Even though there exists some controversy as to the value of voice recognition, with some arguing that generic voice recognition can be very frustrating to learners who are simply trying to learn the language, not become broadcast journalists, and can work against them. However, for most learners, it is nice to have a high-quality program to promote practice by recording one's voice to get closer to the native-speaker model. Both *ELLIS Intro* and *Business*, combined with the increased learner-teacher interaction and individualized practice, can create a richer learning experience for ESL/EFL learners. Using individualized computer instruction in the classroom will also increase student motivation. I conclude that the harmony of the interactive nature of its programs and easy and creative use of technology make the ELLIS Suite some of the very best software available for ESL/EFL learning. It has opened the doors of the electronic classroom for ESL/EFL learners by supplementing instruction and promoting practice.

Minimum Operating System Requirements

Windows 95, 98, NT: P90+ processor speed for quarter-screen video, P133+ for full screen video; 30 MB of available disk space per program, 16 MB of RAM, double-speed CD-ROM, SVGA 16 bit high color video card, 100% SoundBlaster compatible sound card, head set or microphone and speakers.

Windows 3.x: 486 50+ processor speed for full screen video (MPEG card required), 40 MB of available disk space per program, 12 MB of RAM, double-speed CD-ROM, 100% SoundBlaster compatible sound card, headset or microphone and speakers.

Macintosh OS 7.1: 68040 processor, 85 MB hard disk space, 640x480x256 color monitor, 18 MB of RAM, double-speed CD-ROM, QuickTime 2..1.2 (on installation CD), headset or microphone and speakers.

The Reviewer

Myung-Jai Kang is a professor in the Department of Practical English at Yeojoo Institute of Technology in Yeojoo, Kyunggi-do and also 1999-2000 vice president of the KOTESOL Seoul Chapter. She received a master's degree in English from the University of Wisconsin, U.S.A., and a Ph.D. from Hong Ik University in Seoul. She has been teaching English at the college level since 1985 and conducted TV English programs on the MBC and CBS television networks for several years. Her teaching and research interests include ESL/EFL teaching methodology, language acquisition, and action research projects. Email: regina@yeojoo.ac.kr and regina@intizen.com

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MindGame

Mario Rinvolucri.
Clarity Language Consultants Ltd., 1999.

Reviewed by David B. Kent

The *MindGame* CD-ROM is suitable for the young learner of 8 as well as the older learner of 80. The package is an enjoyable easy-to-use language game that has appeal to Korean learners, especially since it is based upon the game-play of go, known as *ba-duk* in Korean.

MindGame is available as separate packages for elementary, lower intermediate, intermediate, upper intermediate, and advanced learners of English as a Foreign/Second Language. The program is well suited for the learner engaged in self-study, as they can play against a computer opponent, and for use in a language classroom or self-access center where students can play against each other.

Game Play

Similar to go, the objective of the game is to trap one of your opponent's pieces between two of your pieces. After trapping your opponent's piece, the computer will ask you a language question and if you complete the question correctly you capture that piece. To win you must capture all of your opponent's pieces.

The game itself is easy to master, the language work is a little bit more difficult and is based on the notion of presenting students with one half of a matching pair. For example, *America* is given as the country half of a pair and students must key in *American* for the missing nationality half, *went* is given as past tense so students must key in *go* for present tense, *color* is American spelling so students must key in *colour* for British spelling, and so on.

Language Focus

Overall the design and language content of the exercises are well suited to each learner level. Content areas covered by each level include standard language areas focusing upon grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, and spelling.

It is good to see a package that deals with less traditional language content such as anagrams (*late* and *tale*), animal noises (*grunt* and *pig*), boys' and girls'

names (*Denis* and *Denise*), and collocations (*spit* and *polish*). Mainstream course books tend to ignore these areas of language, but they are something that many EFL/ESL students have an interest in.

MindGame is an effective tool for engaging in the learning of finite language areas. In addition correct punctuation is required, and it is easy for a learner to forget to use the shift key, although it must be remembered that this is a language game. So too, a little more functionality could have been provided for correct answers, as the game will only accept one correct answer instead of a range of correct possibilities.

Multimedia Presentation

MindGame's use of multimedia allows for rich textures and graphics for the game boards and players' counters. Students can select between different board backgrounds and counter animations. Background music is a nice touch for entertaining learners when they are stuck on a language problem, there is an option to turn it on and off, although the music ceases as soon as the first question of the game is answered. Audio feedback is also provided for each correct or incorrect answer, although the style of feedback cannot be changed as in some other language learning programs.

Another use of multimedia is in the presentation of native-speaker audio. The objective here is to have students listen to a term and then key in the correct spelling. This section may not particularly appeal to Korean students, who are more familiar with an American accent, as the vocabulary is spoken in British-style English. However, this does provide Korean students with the opportunity of getting used to hearing, and understanding, an alternative style of accent.

Exploring the possibilities of multimedia further, an option for having each game question spoken by a native-speaker, as well as displayed to the student in text form, could have been provided. The CD format of the game certainly allows enough space for this, and it may be something that could come in a later version of the package. Also, having the ability to turn on and off such a feature would come in handy for students playing by themselves, or when working together in self-access centers where the students could ask each other the questions as they play.

Adjustable Settings

The program contains several flexible game and learning options built-in. One option on offering to students is the ability to select the number of words in play, from a range of 4 to 36 words; the default option is set at "maximum." Students can also change answer time limits, from 6 to 30 seconds; the default setting is "unlimited." Students can also alter the game-play skill level of the computer, from beginner,

to intermediate or advanced; the default setting is "beginner." All of these options allow for user customization of the program, albeit to a limited degree, making the game easier or more challenging for the student.

Another option is being able to see the computer answer questions. This is the default setting when playing against the computer. Initially this is a little confusing but is easy enough to get used to. This option also allows students to see the answers to questions they may have to answer later in the game. Depending on your purpose for using the game, this can be both good and bad. Good in that it exposes the learner to the language used in the game before having to produce it, and bad in that it gives the student the answer before the student has attempted to use their current language skills.

Grading

The games integrate the ability to track the activity of each user, showing the amount of time they have spent playing each game, as well as the user's language progression and problem areas. There is also an option for viewing "top scores." In a classroom or language center environment these options are valuable for both teacher and student. Individual performance can be viewed both overall and in relation to other class members.

A detailed report lists the score for each game and length of time each game was played. The report also lists the number of games completed, the average score, a performance rating, and a breakdown of how many times each term was answered correctly or incorrectly. This report can be printed, although there is no option to save the report to disk.

The "top scores" listing cannot be printed. This is a bit of a shame as a weekly print out of this report posted in a classroom or language center environment could motivate students to become engaged more actively in using and learning from the game.

Extending the Language Focus

The program comes with an authoring kit that allows teachers, or students, to create exercises specifically tailored to individual learning or teaching needs. The packaged authoring tool allows users to develop games employing a method similar to that of the program, i.e., using any matching pair answer, although it is also possible to ask single response type questions. Furthermore, to accompany each question a user designs, there is functionality for customizing the presentation of graphic files and sentences, and the playing of audio or video files.

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Future Possibilities

An exciting aspect from the publishers of this game is the future development of a website library of authored games. This site will be a repository into which teachers and students can share the games they have developed for use with the *MindGame* software. Downloading these files could prove to be an excellent opportunity for students and teachers alike to be able to expand the content of their *MindGame* learning base, and therefore increase the shelf life of the product.

Developer's Background

Clarity has been designing English language teaching software since 1992, and their programs are now in wide use in over 85 countries. Clarity has also customized ELT software for Oxford University Press, the British Council, Richmond Publishing, and Australia's Adult Multicultural Education Service.

Minimum Operating System Requirements

Windows 95, 98, or NT operating system with Pentium-class processor, CD-ROM and sound card, display resolution: 256 colors, screen size: 800x600.

The Reviewer

David Kent has a Ph.D. in TEFL and is currently working at Inha University in Inch'on. He has been teaching in Korea for five years and enjoys developing language game software which provides relative socio-cultural learning for Korean students. Email: dbkent@yahoo.com

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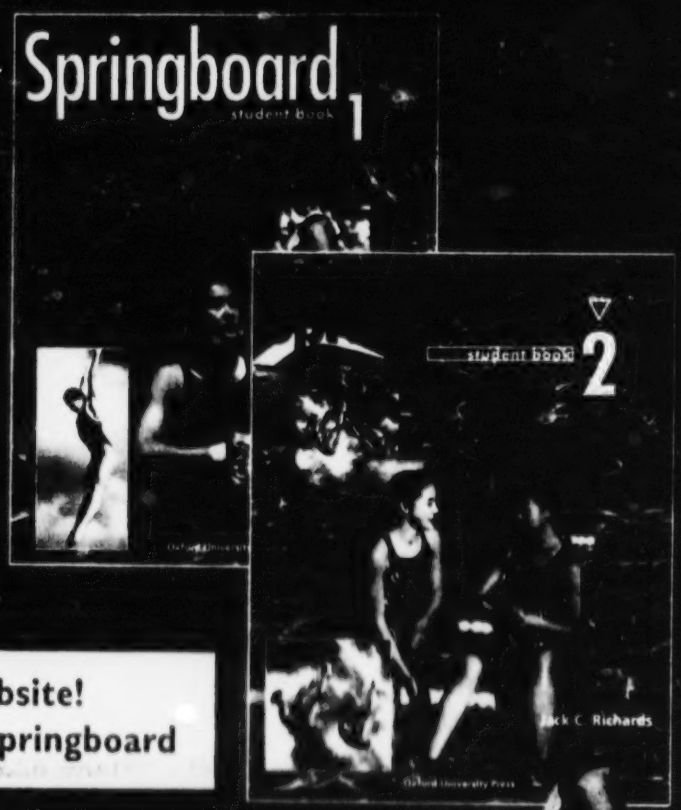

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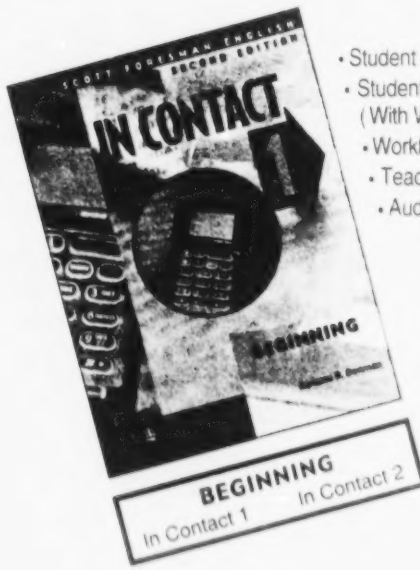

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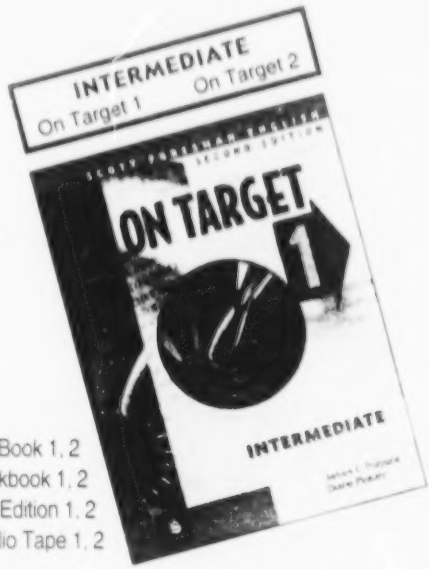

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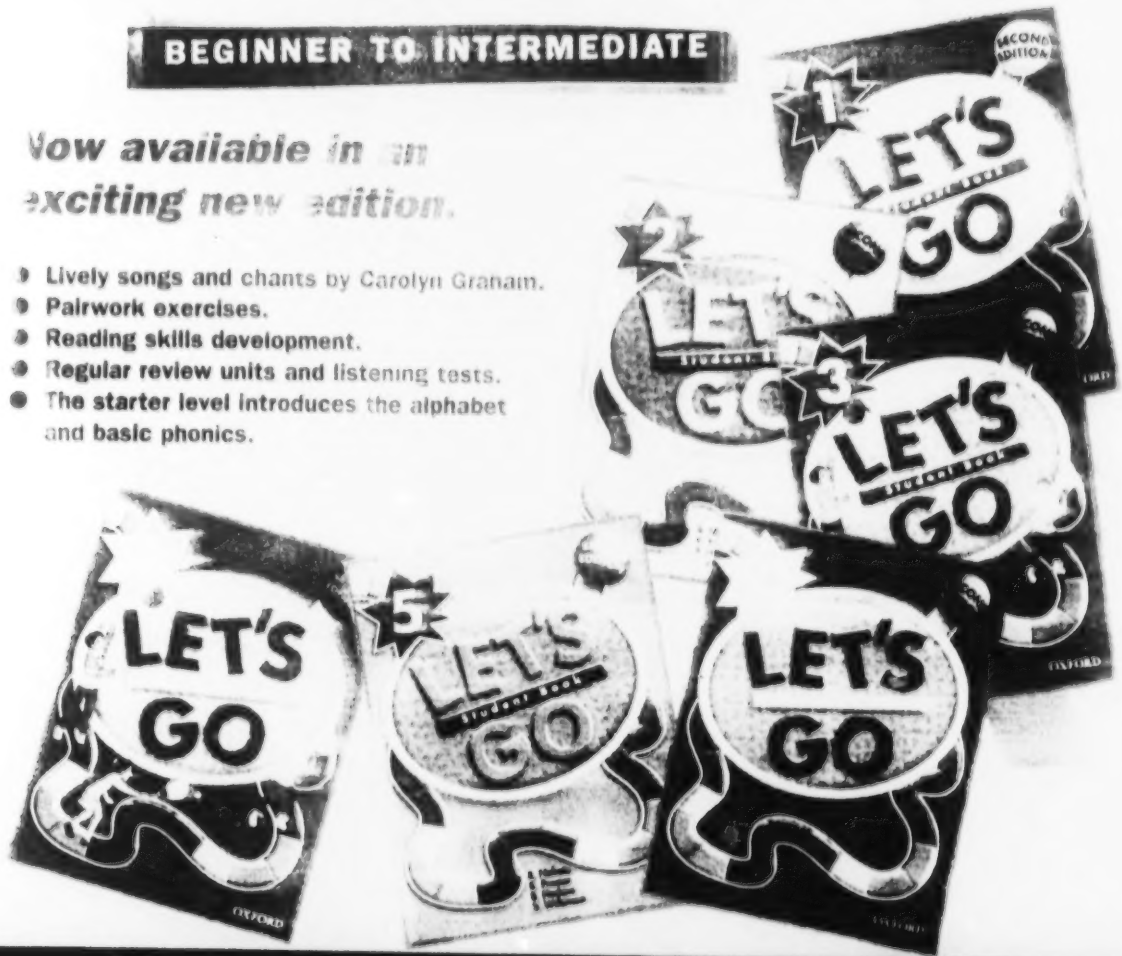

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